Technical Report 1302

Emotions at Work: Leader Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities to Enhance Soldier Performance

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March 2012

**U.S. Army Research Institute
for the Behavioral and Social Sciences**

**Department of the Army
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NOTICES

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE

1. REPORT DATE (dd-mm-yy) March 2012	2. REPORT TYPE Final	3. DATES COVERED (from. . . to) September 2008 – February 2009

4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE Emotions at Work: Leader Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities to Enhance Soldier Performance	5a. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER W91WAW08P0430
	5b. PROGRAM ELEMENT NUMBER 622785
6. AUTHOR(S) Seth Kaplan and Jose Cortina (George Mason University); Gregory A. Ruark (U.S. Army Research Institute); Kara Orvis, Katie Engel, and Krista Langkamer (Aptima, Inc.)	5c. PROJECT NUMBER A790
	5d. TASK NUMBER 333
	5e. WORK UNIT NUMBER

7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) George Mason University Aptima, Inc. 4400 University Dr. 12 Gill St. Suite 1400 Fairfax, VA 22030 Woburn, MA 01801	8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER

9. SPONSORING/MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences 851 McClellan Avenue Fort Leavenworth, KS 66027-1360	10. MONITOR ACRONYM ARI-FLRU
	11. MONITOR REPORT NUMBER Technical Report 1302

12. DISTRIBUTION/AVAILABILITY STATEMENT
Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited.

13. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES
Contracting Officer's Representative and Subject Matter Expert POC: Dr. Gregory A. Ruark

14. ABSTRACT *(Maximum 200 words)*:

Every context and situation has the potential to evoke an emotional response in a Soldier; such emotions may include happiness, boredom, anxiety, and fear. Success in dealing with these situations requires that Army leaders leverage the emotional properties of a situation to exert influence on one or more Soldiers in order to attain a desired outcome. Army leaders, however, receive little training in this area. Neither the Army Leadership Field Manual (U.S. Department of the Army FM 6-22, 2006) nor the psychology research literature provides detailed guidance regarding the trainable attributes needed to manage emotions in self and others. The purpose of this Phase I STTR work was to compile and synthesize research from various domains in order to better understand the nature of emotional management and the attributes that predict it. This report outlines specific knowledge, skills, abilities, and other capabilities that predict leaders' success in executing eight categories (i.e., dimensions) of emotion management behaviors, which are posited to impact "proximal" outcomes and, in turn, "ultimate" outcomes. Implications for the U.S. Army are discussed.

15. SUBJECT TERMS
emotion management, emotional intelligence, emotional regulation, leadership, influence, toxic leadership

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF			19. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT	20. NUMBER OF PAGES	21. RESPONSIBLE PERSON
16. REPORT Unclassified	17. ABSTRACT Unclassified	18. THIS PAGE Unclassified	Unlimited	78	Ellen Kinzer ARI Technical Publications Specialist 703-545-4225

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March 2012

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

EMOTIONS AT WORK: LEADER KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, AND ABILITIES TO ENHANCE SOLDIER PERFORMANCE

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Research Requirement:

Every context and situation has the potential to evoke an emotional response in a Soldier; such emotions may include, but are not limited to, happiness, boredom, anxiety, and fear. Success in dealing with these situations requires that Army leaders leverage the emotional properties of a situation to exert influence on one or more Soldiers in order to attain a desired outcome. Army leaders, however, receive relatively little training in this area. Neither the Army Leadership Field Manual (U.S. Department of the Army FM 6-22, 2006) nor the psychology research literature provides a great deal of guidance regarding the trainable attributes (e.g., knowledge and skills) needed to manage others' emotions. One purpose of this Phase I research was to compile and synthesize research from various domains in order to build a theoretical model depicting the nature of emotion management and the attributes that predict it.

Procedure:

In order to develop a novel and theoretically-driven model of leader emotion management, research in I/O psychology, social psychology, neuropsychology, sports psychology, personality, and management was reviewed and integrated. Across these research domains, various relevant topics were explored: emotional labor, emotion regulation, emotional intelligence, social support, the social functions of emotions, the verbal and non-verbal (e.g., emotional contagion) transmission of emotion, athletic coaches' use of emotion management strategies, leadership, persuasion, coping, biofeedback, and motivation.

Findings:

A theoretical model of emotion management was developed which implies that various knowledge, skills, abilities, and other capabilities (KSAOs) predict leaders' success in executing eight sets or categories of emotion management behaviors: (1) interacting and communicating in an interpersonally tactful manner, (2) demonstrating consideration and support for employees, (3) using emotional displays to influence employees' behavior, (4) structuring work tasks with consideration for employees' emotions, (5) providing frequent emotional "uplifts," (6) behaving in a fair and ethical manner, (7) managing interactions and relationships among coworkers, and (8) maintaining open and frequent communication. These categories then are posited to impact "proximal" outcomes and, in turn, "ultimate" outcomes, the latter being of most interest and consequence to the leader, the Soldier, and the Army in general. The model also incorporates two sets of moderator variables, as well as two feedback loops. The moderators represent contextual and individual variables that impact relationships among leader KSAOs and leader emotion management behaviors and between those behaviors and the outcomes they are predicted to impact. The feedback loops represent the dynamic nature of leader – Soldier affect relations and the corresponding upward spiral of Soldiers' and unit effectiveness over time.

Utilization and Dissemination of Findings:

Essential next steps are to validate the proposed linkages in the model and, based on those validation results, revise the model accordingly. The process model, and particularly the identification of the relevant KSAOs, could aid in the development of U.S. Army training programs specifically tailored to enhance these attributes to facilitate emotion management. U.S. Army leaders can utilize emotion management knowledge and skills to increase overall performance by managing Soldiers' emotions (e.g., pride), establishing trust, and developing Soldier commitment to the unit and the Army in general. The results of this research guided research and development performed in Phase II. Specifically, the model assisted in the development of a classroom-based educational curriculum including a facilitator's guide and a supplemental multi-media trainer.

EMOTIONS AT WORK: LEADER KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, AND ABILITIES TO
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Introduction

Work elicits many emotions. It is a source of anger, distress, frustration, and embarrassment, but also a spring of pride, belongingness, fulfillment, and excitement (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Basch & Fisher, 2000; Boudens, 2005; Miner, Glomb, & Hulin, 2005). These emotions derive both from work-related events and interactions (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), as well as from the non-work feelings that employees bring with them to the job (Wharton & Erickson, 1993). The consequences of these states are far-reaching, impacting not only well-being outcomes, but also individual, group and organizational performance (George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Patterson, Warr, & West, 2004; for reviews, see Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Elfenbein, 2007).

Emotion Management (EM) is particularly important for Army Soldiers. Every context and situation has the potential to evoke an emotional response in a Soldier. Examples of emotions impacting Soldiers' activities include the experience of fear as a Soldier conducts a cordon and search in an Iraqi village, boredom while attending a checkpoint in a less traveled area of Afghanistan, or pride from being a part of a cohesive Army unit (Chivers, 2006; Davis, 2011). Mission success requires that Army leaders comprehend the emotional properties of a particular situation in order to exert influence on one or more Soldiers in order to attain a desired outcome. A leader may need to evoke new emotions or leverage or modify existing emotions.

Although the management of emotions is important for Soldiers in every rank, it is particularly important for Army leaders who are responsible for both controlling their own emotions and influencing the emotions of others. The Army Leadership Field Manual (U.S. Department of the Army FM 6-22, 2006) defines leadership as "the process of influencing people by providing purpose, direction, and motivation while operating to accomplish the mission and improve the organization" (p. 1-2). The manual makes clear that Army leaders face a wide variety of situations and success in dealing with emotions in these situations requires possession of certain values, beliefs, and competencies. Aspects of EM appear in each of the leader competencies at every level.

In fact, a consistent theme emerging from the literature on workplace emotions is that organizational leaders are critical to the emergence, management, and consequences of organizational affective experiences. Specifically, research has revealed that leaders are responsible for some of the most important and frequent determinants of employees' emotions (Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007; Dasborough, 2006; George, 2000; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004; Pescosolido, 2002). Employee emotions, in turn, affect a variety of outcomes such as sales performance (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002), team performance (Pirola-Merlo, Haertel, Mann, & Hirst, 2002), and intentions to quit (Côté & Morgan, 2002). Underscoring the importance of leaders as managers of workplace emotion, Leavitt and Bahrami (1988) suggest that "managing one's own emotions, and those of employees, is as much a critical managerial function as managing markets or finances" (p. 40). Similarly, Rafaeli and Worline (2001) conclude, "put simply, management's job has become the management of emotion" (p. 107).

Despite recognition that leaders have a significant impact on subordinates' emotions, several substantial gaps currently exist with regard to our knowledge of leader EM. First, the precise nature and dimensionality of EM and the behaviors that constitute such management are largely unknown. While some scholars have documented the importance of particular behaviors (Dasborough, 2006), a comprehensive catalogue of leader EM behaviors is absent. Second, the literature does not communicate an understanding of the antecedents of effective EM and how the two sets of variables are linked. Although scholars have examined specific personal characteristics (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2006), a comprehensive consideration of all these predictors and their relationships to EM behaviors is needed.

This report presents a comprehensive theoretically-derived model of organizational leader emotion management that can be utilized by the U.S. Army and organizations in general. The model would be of value to scholars and practitioners. From the U.S. Army perspective, the model provides a theoretical basis to develop educational curricula focused on developing leader's EM knowledge and skills, which provides the Army leader with additional influence tactics. From a scholarly perspective, this model would summarize and integrate various literatures, the connections among which are often obscured. In addition, the model would help to clarify the nature of EM and of its role in leadership in general. While various leadership frameworks recognize that EM is an important aspect of leadership (e.g., transformational leadership, Bass, 1990; authentic leadership, Luthans & Avolio, 2003), these frameworks do not fully capture or delineate the components of EM, or specify the distinct correlates of these various components. The EM model will integrate and expand these treatments, which will provide a framework to guide future research and the development of training interventions

The report is organized in the following way. First, we define the key terms and provide an overview of the proposed theoretical model. Next, we discuss eight broad categories (i.e., dimensions) of behavior that constitute effective leader EM and the proposed consequences that follow from these categories. Following this, we propose various knowledge, skills, and personality characteristics (referred to here at KSAOs for the sake of convention) relevant to leaders' EM and, by implication, to individual and organizational outcomes. After this, we discuss potential feedback loops in the model as well as individual and contextual moderators that operate at various points in the model. Finally, this report concludes with a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of the current model.

Affect and Emotion Management (EM)

Our conceptualization of emotion management and its dimensions shares some resemblance to that of other leadership topics such as transformational leadership (Bass, 1990) and authentic leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). However, leader emotion management differs from existing leadership frameworks and topics in several important ways. First, emotion management is a broader topic in that it involves appreciating and fostering (or curbing) a wide range of emotions. For instance, a leader proficient in emotion management recognizes the potential benefits that aversive emotions such as mild fear and anxiety can provide for Soldiers in certain situations (Elsbach & Barr, 1999) and therefore does not always strive to eliminate such states. Conversely, transformational and authentic leadership, to the extent that they specifically incorporate emotions, focus exclusively on positive states such as enthusiasm,

confidence, and inspiration (Bass, 1990). This difference between EM behavior and these sets of leader behaviors has important implications. It implies, for instance, that leaders who are transformational are not necessarily proficient at EM and vice versa. Additionally, it suggests that different individual characteristics (e.g., knowledge and skill factors) may be more or less important for these different sets of leadership behaviors.

Although previous research often intertwines EM behaviors in leader activities, the construct needs to be more precisely defined in order to be useful. While there are defined dimensions of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), for instance, investigations examining transformational leadership typically do not provide specific or detailed linkages between emotion KSAOs, emotion-specific categories, and outcomes. In contrast, our objective here is to delineate the nature of EM and its component dimensions, the particular predictors and outcomes of those different dimensions, and the dynamic process through which (in) effective EM yields effects over time.

We define EM as *the processes and behaviors involved in assisting Soldiers in regulating their emotional experiences so as to facilitate the attainment of organizational objectives*. We note several points about this definition and especially its relationship to emotional experience. First, although some of the research on which we draw comes from the clinical and counseling psychology literatures, EM as defined here does not refer to the management of mental health as this is beyond the scope of our investigation and our expertise. Instead, we focus on emotions that are, for Soldiers, more routine in nature.

Second, EM is an on-going process of helping individuals learn about their own tendencies, liberate their resources, and develop and enhance those knowledge and skills that promote growth, adaptation, and well-being (Egan, 2002; Mallinckrodt, 1996). This is not to say that leaders proficient in EM do not sometimes create emotions which Soldiers may find unpleasant. On the contrary, the effective leader recognizes that instilling aversive emotional experiences, such as fear or guilt, is necessary at times in order to achieve immediate mission success and for the ultimate psychological betterment of the Soldier. Regarding this latter objective, the leader realizes that facing stressful and challenging experiences is essential for personal growth, and that the unpleasant emotions that accompany those experiences ultimately will give rise to Soldiers' enhanced self-efficacy, coping skills, and psychological well-being (Maddi, 2002). Thus, leaders proficient in EM can select situations likely to engender emotions that will promote such growth and also are able to create and/or leverage Soldiers' emotions to achieve such means.

With regard to "emotion," we use this term interchangeably with other affective terms including mood and affect. While the psychological literature is extremely muddied with respect to the nature of and distinctions between these concepts (Forgas, 1995; Fridja, 1986; Izard, 2007), we adopt a more general treatment for this report. This treatment stems from and reflects current conceptualizations of EM. While we are primarily interested in specific affective events or interactions, which are the focal unit of analysis (Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), such events do not occur in isolation. Rather, discrete events and interactions are part of a larger stream of experiences with each occurrence informing and being informed by others (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). Thus, one emotional reaction, for instance, can

morph into or influence subsequent moods which, in turn, impact perceptions of the leader during future interactions (Forgas & George, 2001). In this sense, the emotions generated in each interaction and the meaning attached to those emotions can only be understood in a relational context with reference to prior and future interactions (Lazarus, 2006). Thus, given this temporal and phenomenological interplay between these different affective experiences, the distinctions among different "forms" of affect are not particularly useful here.

Overview of the Model

The conceptual model appears in Figures 1 and 2. We derived the model in Figures 1 and 2 by drawing from various research literatures in order to construct a model that would generalize across military, government, and commercial organizations. Beginning at the left of Figure 1, the model implies that various KSAOs predict leaders' success in executing eight categories of EM behaviors. Below we detail these categories and justify their inclusion in the model. The model includes proximal and ultimate outcomes resulting from these behaviors, which will be articulated in later sections.

The model also incorporates two sets of moderator variables as well as two feedback loops (See Figure 2). The moderators represent contextual and individual variables that impact the relationships among leader KSAOs and leader EM behaviors and between those behaviors and the outcomes they are predicted to impact. The feedback loops represent the dynamic nature of leader – employee affect relations, which were described above. We elaborate on these moderators and feedback loops in a later section of this report.

EM and Emotional Intelligence

In discussing this model, it is useful to juxtapose it with research on emotional intelligence (EI) and leadership. The literature on EI and leadership, especially in terms of transformational leadership, is mushrooming and clearly represents a major paradigm in terms of scholarship on leader EM (Bass & Riggio, 2006; George, 2000; Megerian & Sosik, 1999; Wong & Law, 2002). While this literature has made important contributions, several investigations, and especially those done in real organizations, have revealed either no relationship or a very weak one between EI and leader effectiveness or performance (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Brown, Bryant, & Reilly, 2006; Wolff, Pescosolido, & Druskat, 2002; Wong & Law, 2002).

Partially underlying these somewhat weak relationships may be the conceptual ambiguity of EI. Currently, there exists considerable debate regarding the nature of EI as well as whether the concept even "exists" (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004; Landy, 2005; Matthews, Roberts, & Zeidner, 2004). Some researchers adopt the ability-based model of EI (Mayer, 2008; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Wong & Law, 2002), which suggests EI is an ability that can be developed through training. Alternatively, some researchers adopt the mix-model approach of EI where a model will include range of competencies, personality factors, and other traits that are less malleable to training interventions (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995, 1998).

With regard to work on leader effectiveness, these alternative conceptualizations are troublesome for a couple of reasons. First, they make it difficult to compare research results.

KSAOs	**CATEGORIES OF LEADER EMOTION MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOR**	**PROXIMAL OUTCOMES**	**ULTIMATE OUTCOMES**
Knowledge			
1. Self-insight	1. Interacting and communicating in a tactful manner	1. Strong norms/rules for emotional displays	1. Cohesion
2. Knowledge of emotions and their consequences	2. Demonstrating consideration and support for employees	2. Culture of mutual support provision within unit	2. Task performance
3. Knowledge of emotional evoking events	3. Using emotional displays to influence employees' behavior	3. Psychological safety	3. OCBs
4. Knowledge of the importance of emotions and emotion management	4. Structuring work tasks with consideration for employees' emotions	4. Rapport with leader/LMX	4. Adaptive performance
5. Knowledge of organizational norms regarding emotional displays	5. Providing frequent emotional "uplifts"	5. Trust in leader	5. Reduced CWBs
	6. Behaving in a fair and ethical manner	6. Satisfaction with leader	6. Satisfaction and org. commitment
Skills	7. Managing interactions and relationships among coworkers	7. Willingness to approach leader	7. Reduced turnover, greater retention
1. Emotion recognition	8. Maintaining open and frequent communication	8. Task motivation	8. Reduced burnout and strain
2. Perspective-taking		9. Receptiveness to feedback	
3. Emotion support skill		10. Positive affective tone	
4. Presentation skill		11. Shared mental models	
5. Communication skill			

Personality
1. Neuroticism/NA/BIS
2. Extroversion/PA/BAS
3. Conscientiousness
4. Self-monitoring
5. Empathy
6. Charisma
7. Agreeableness
8. Emotional expressivity

Leader Self Emotion Management

Situational Factors

Target Attributes

Situational Factors

Target Attributes

Figure 1: Theoretical Model of EM

KSAOs

CATEGORIES OF LEADER EMOTION MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOR

PROXIMAL OUTCOMES

ULTIMATE OUTCOMES

1

2

Leader Self Emotion Management

Situational Factors
•Autonomy/Situational strength
•Leader's workload
•Situational emotional intensity
•Amount of contact with target

Target Attributes
•Status differential
•Need and desire for emotion management

Situational Factors
•Situational emotional intensity

Target Attributes
•Status differential
•Emotional malleability
•Attitudes towards authority
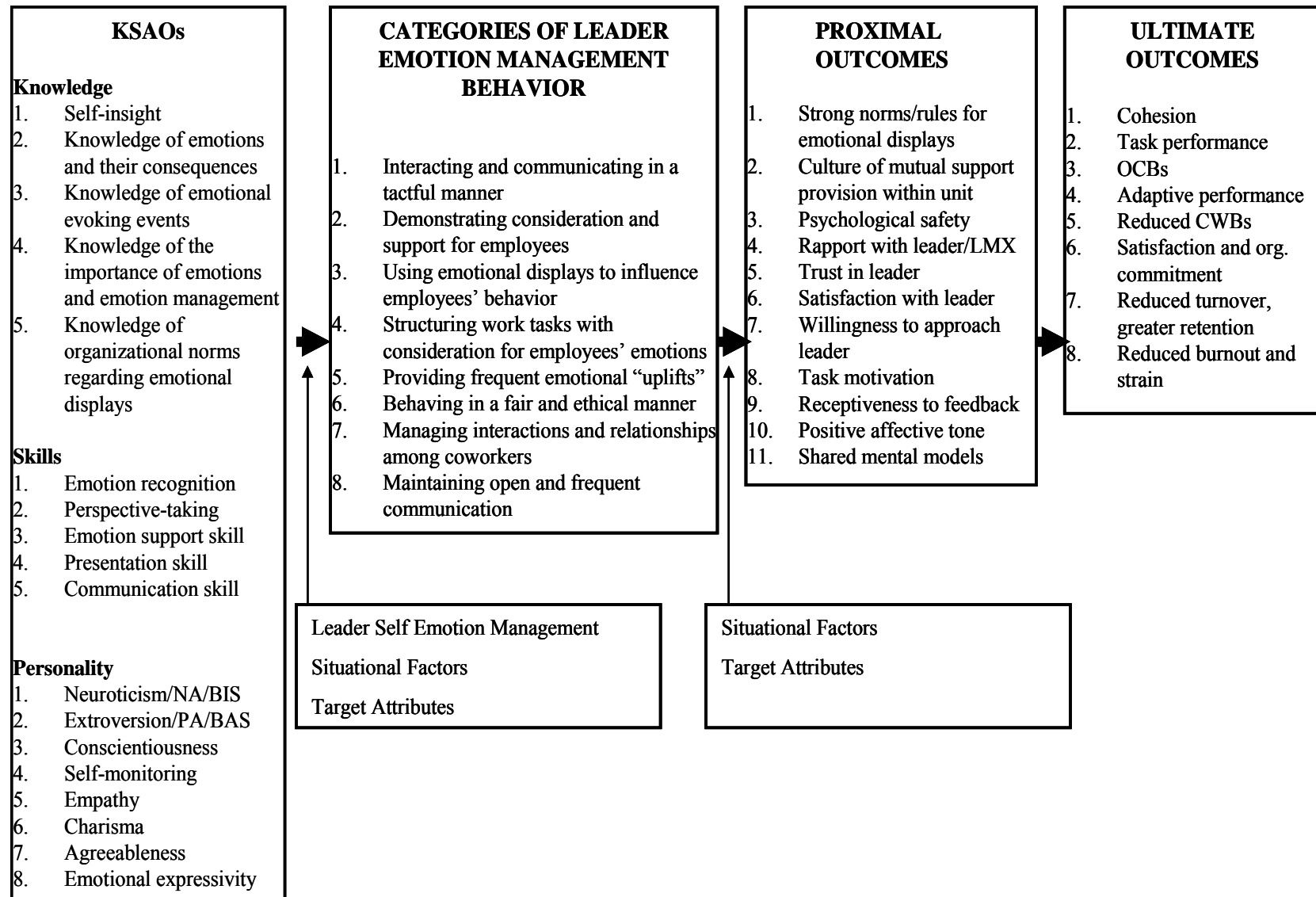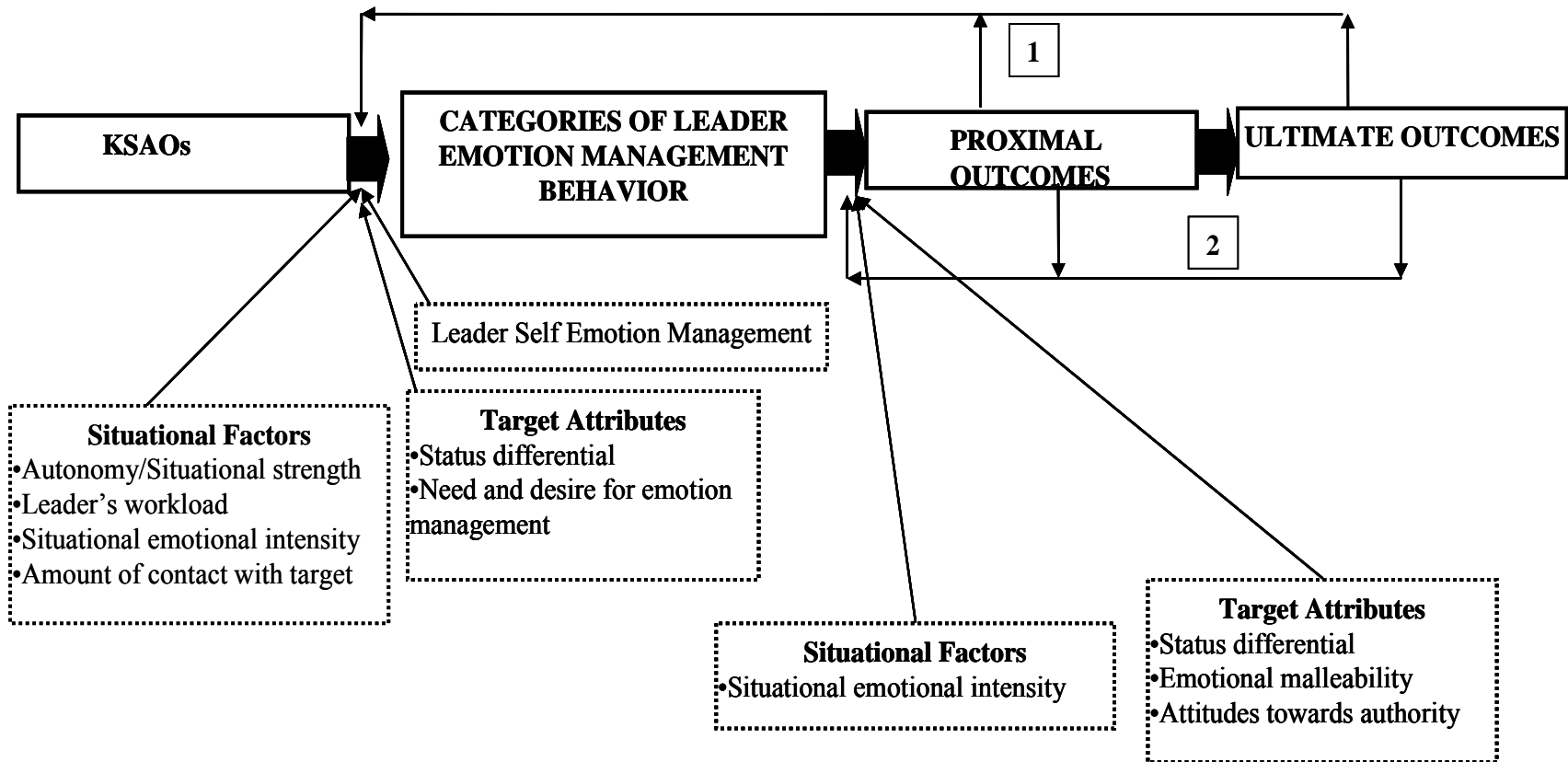
Figure 2: Feedback Loops and Moderators within the Theoretical Model of EM

More problematic however is that EI investigations generally fail to acknowledge that the specific competencies composing EI may demonstrate markedly different relationships with various leader effectiveness variables (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006). Researchers generally only examine a subset of potential EI components and/or a subset of leader performance behaviors, oftentimes using a general or summary measure of one or both. Doing so implies that EI (and all of its components) are equally relevant for, and related to, various leader functions. This is an untested assumption, which, at a minimum, requires empirical verification (Barsade & Gibson, 2007).

The current model reflects a very different way of thinking about EM. To address the issues above, we conceive of EM as eight specific categories of leader behaviors. The various KSAOs then are predictive of successful execution of these sets of behaviors (Campbell, 1990). This conceptualization not only locates EM in the larger performance criterion space (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000), but it also provides a more sophisticated conceptualization of the relationships among KSAOs, EM performance, and various outcomes of that performance.

These eight categories of behaviors are aspects of leader performance that correspond to leader influence processes in which successful EM is most likely to be necessary and consequential. We generated the list of EM categories in Figure 1 by reviewing research from several areas, especially that on the sources of workplace emotions (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Boudens, 2005; Brief & Weiss, 2002), leader behavior as a precursor to such emotions (Dasborough, 2006; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004), and leaders as emotion managers (Kellett et al., 2006).

Several comments about these sets of behaviors warrant emphasis. First, each set of behaviors has immediate as well as long term consequences. The leader competent in emotion management considers both the immediate and longer term implications in enacting the relevant behaviors. Furthermore, this leader recognizes that the same behavior may have divergent effects on Soldiers' immediate emotions and reactions versus the Soldiers' longer term outcomes. As an illustration of these points, consider the leader EM category of "structuring work tasks with consideration for Soldiers' emotions." To facilitate successful completion of the relevant task, the leader will need to choose and generate the appropriate emotion in Soldiers. Facilitative emotions potentially might include moderate distress or anxiety (Elsbach & Barr, 1999) which, in turn, could also foster immediate decreases in job satisfaction, and the like. However, by creating or allowing these somewhat negative emotions, the leader can also potentially engender beneficial longer term outcomes such as greater self-efficacy, better subsequent performance, trust in the leader's assessment of the Soldier's ability, et cetera. The successful leader recognizes these potential beneficial longer term outcomes and ensures that they come to fruition. Effective EM leaders are not callous or "unfeeling." On the contrary, this leader is supportive throughout the relevant process (e.g., task-related performance), preventing any undue distress and ensuring the Soldier learns from the relevant experience. Leaders less competent on EM could err in several ways in this example, such as creating too much or too little distress or failing to provide constructive feedback and assurance during and after the task.

Although some of the eight sets of behaviors are more relevant to immediate versus longer-term outcomes, all are somewhat relevant to both. Given this recognition, we do not belabor this point in discussing each set of behaviors. However, we do feel that the more general point that the leader must consider consequences over time is an important one to keep in mind in the following pages.

As seen in Appendix A, performance in these categories is a function of leaders successfully exhibiting collections of discrete behaviors. For instance, the category of "managing interactions and relationships among coworkers," encompasses discrete behaviors such as (1) staffing workgroups to achieve desired affective outcomes, (2) behaving in a way to evoke intended emotions, (3) managing group conflict, and (4) identifying ostracized group members and reintegrating them into the group. That the category of behaviors itself is multifaceted also suggests that different KSAOs are predictive of the various constituent behaviors. For example, *knowledge of emotions and their consequences* is likely more important for the first behavior above while *communication skill* should be more important for the latter.

Also important to note is that these categories represent *effective* EM, underscoring the recognition that relevant behaviors must be considered in light of their consequences. While this conceptualization has some conceptual and practical drawbacks (Campbell, 1990), such is appropriate given the nature of EM. Unlike more mechanical or routinized tasks, the effectiveness of the EM behavior is necessarily a function of its nature and timing, not just its presence or quantity (Coyne, Wortman, & Lehman, 1988).

Below we elaborate on the nature and significance of each of the eight categories, discussing the nature of their constituent behaviors and their relationships to various outcomes. Throughout this and other sections of this report, we highlight the specific relationships (e.g., between a given set of behaviors and various outcomes) that we regard as most likely and important.

Categories of EM Behaviors

Using Emotional Displays to Influence Soldiers' Behavior

Leaders use explicit emotional displays to impact Soldiers' immediate behavior. These displays can take various forms, such as yelling or screaming to induce anxiety or excitement, appearing stern and straight-faced to evoke fear or a sense of gravity and telling stories to induce pride. In each of these cases, the leader attempts to influence Soldiers' behavior by evoking within them a certain emotional state. Effective leaders are able to select and put on "emotional performances" (Bolton, 2000), with the nature of the performance dependent on its function. For instance, an Army leader will exhibit expressions of anger towards a Soldier engaged in counterproductive behavior. Conversely, an Army leader will exhibit optimism regarding an upcoming mission to instill Soldiers with confidence.

These displays impact behavior through their effect on employees' felt emotions and on the motivation that follows from such emotion. This latter idea, that motivation and resultant behavior are largely a function of emotion, is practically axiomatic. Emotional experiences

impact motivation through various psychological processes. First emotions can impact and interact with cognitive representations of the behavior, such as one's efficacy in performing it and the valence of the behavior's consequences (Erez & Isen, 2002). Felt emotions can also motivate behavior in a simpler, stimulus-response type fashion, as the experience of negative feelings is a primary motivator to change current circumstances while the experience of positive emotions generally results in wanting to maintain the status quo (George & Zhou, 2002). In addition to experienced affect, forecasted emotional experiences are also essential to motivation, as human behavior is largely a product of the feelings that are predicted to follow from such behavior (Wilson & Gilbert, 2003). The leader proficient in Emotion Management is able to evoke and leverage these emotional experiences by choosing and enacting the most effective emotional displays.

These displays serve various functions and result in several important outcomes. First, the leader may use these exhibitions to induce emotions in others with the objective of directly impacting their job-related motivation and behavior. Intentional or not, leaders' emotional displays can instill confidence, assuage anxiety, or incite enthusiasm to enhance Soldiers' performance or productivity (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). Indeed, recent research documents the importance of leader-induced affect and emotion as predecessors of motivation and task performance (Ashby, Isen, & Turken, 1999; Bono & Ilies, 2006; Erez & Isen, 2002). Leaders can evoke emotions as a way to foster cohesion or cooperation (George & Brief, 1992) or instill feelings of guilt or remorse when admonishing someone for counterproductive behavior (Klinnert et al., 1983).

In addition to their direct impact on short-term performance, these displays also can serve additional functions. First, these leader displays can impact the way Soldiers perceive organizational events (Fineman, 1993). For instance, leaders can moderate the perceived importance of an emotional and significant event and also can make seemingly mundane events meaningful by infusing them with emotional substance (Sarbin, 1989). Witnessing these leader reactions and emotional displays then helps Soldiers "make sense" of the events (Weick, 1995) and provides them with insight into the priorities of the leader and of the organization (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Yukl, 1999). In addition, by reducing ambiguity and establishing clear boundaries, such displays provide for greater predictability about future interactions with the leader. Furthermore, these displays also can increase feelings of solidarity and cohesiveness by helping to establish a shared schema among Soldiers (Pescosolido, 2002).

Finally, these emotional displays impact Soldiers' perceptions of and judgments about the leader. For instance, Lewis (2000) showed that expressions of enthusiasm or relaxation correlate with higher ratings of leader effectiveness while expressions of fatigue or nervousness relate to lower effectiveness ratings. Other research shows that leaders' facial expressions (Erez, Misangyi, Johnson, LePine, & Halverson, 2008; Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002) impact judgments about the leader, partially through induced affect. By creating a desired image among their Soldiers, Army leaders have greater emotional influence in the future.

Interacting and Communicating in an Interpersonally Tactful Manner

Leader behaviors should entail communicating and interacting in a way that is optimal given the emotion-relevant characteristics of the situation and of the people present. This set of behaviors has links with interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986) but is somewhat broader in terms of constituent behaviors. Moreover, although component behaviors such as demonstrating tact are clearly important for specific leader functions (e.g., providing feedback; Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004; Liden & Mitchell, 1985), these behaviors are also important in everyday interactions (U.S. Department of the Army, 2006). It is these more commonplace and mundane events that largely dictate workers' emotions and resultant attitudes and behaviors (Fisher, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), implying that leader interpersonal tact during these everyday interactions are especially consequential.

One important component is managing one's emotions that may result in followers experiencing non-productive feelings such as humiliation and disrespect. Put another way, this skill set focuses on removing counter-productive emotion-provoking leader behaviors. Recent work demonstrates that this set of behaviors is among the most significant with regard to employee emotions (see Boudens, 2005, for specific examples). For instance, Dasborough (2006) reported that the most common source of negative workplace affect is ineffective or inappropriate leader communication. Specific examples of such inappropriate communication included one participant recounting, "When he yelled at me, I was terrified" and another reporting, "After being so arrogant toward me. . . I was just enraged" (pp. 167). Other work echoes these reports (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004). Especially telling, Grandey, Tam, and Brauberger (2002) found that one-fourth of workplace anger incidents were the consequence of personal attacks or incivility by supervisors. Such findings are consistent with data indicating that a significant percentage of workers (approximately 13% according to Tepper, 2007) report being victims of "abusive supervision."

The emotions generated by this category of behaviors have significant implications for employee and organizational outcomes (see Figure 1 and Appendix A). First, these behaviors can have immediate and direct influences on behavior, as Soldiers may respond by decreasing task-related effort, engaging in retaliatory counterproductive behaviors (e.g., theft, violence; Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), and/or participating in fewer organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) (e.g., helping teammates; Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007).

In addition to these direct linkages to performance, this set of behaviors also can impact Soldiers' emotional well-being and, in turn, their subsequent performance, health, and intent to remain in the organization. Indeed, it is well-established that insensitive and abusive supervisory behavior results in a host of negative outcomes, including anxiety and depression (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Tepper, 2000), burnout (Yagil, 2006), increased health complaints (Duffy et al., 2002), problem drinking (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006), lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Schat, Desmarais, & Kelloway, 2006) and increased absenteeism (Cox, 1987). Finally, these supervisor behaviors directly impact judgments of the leader and, correspondingly, the leader's ability to influence Soldiers' emotions in the future. Employees who characterize their supervisors as inconsiderate tend not to be very satisfied with them and, accordingly, are less likely to approach their supervisors, instead making efforts to avoid them

(Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, & Carr, 2008). Owing to this distaste for the leader, that leader's subsequent efforts to influence Soldiers' will be limited and likely met with resistance. In a dynamic fashion, then, one episode of untactful behavior could have effects on leader's later efforts to induce or evoke emotions in an ensuing, perhaps critical, performance scenario.

Demonstrating Consideration and Support for Soldiers

Complimentary to the previous section, this set of behaviors focuses on the presence of behaviors leaders can use to demonstrate support (see Rooney & Gottleib, 2007, regarding the distinction). In general, individuals expect to be treated with some degree of respect (Sutton & Griffin, 2004), and the absence of respectful behaviors can lead to negative affect (Dasborough, 2006). Together, it suggests leaders must not only refrain from exhibiting counter-productive emotion-evoking behaviors, but must also utilize considerate behavior when interacting with followers.

Leaders can show considerate behavior through emotional, informational, and instrumental support (Cutrona & Russell, 1990; Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999; Wills & Shinar, 2000). To be effective, considerate behaviors should be incorporated into everyday leader-follower interactions and not be reserved only for times of "crisis" or "stress" (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981; Zohar, 1999). In addition, the Army leader's considerate behavior needs to be genuine to ensure Soldiers perceive the efforts as altruistic and to attain the full benefit of exhibiting these behaviors (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002). Also, the emotional support needs to empower the Soldiers to self develop so that each Soldier can handle future negative situations on their own (Deelstra, Peeters, Schaufeli, Stroebe, Zijlstra, & van Doornen, 2003). That is, Army leaders should not provide support in an excessive or unwarranted manner. Instead, they should identify appropriate situations to deliver emotional support in a way that empowers Soldiers by helping them recognize and enhance their own EM capacity (Egan, 2002). The provision of such support serves several functions. Perhaps of greatest significance, such support can assist subordinates in persevering through an emotionally-laden performance situation. Absent such support, Soldiers can get caught in a downwardly cascading spiral of negative emotions and negative appraisals of their ability to operate in that situation (Baumann, Sniezek, & Buerkle, 2001).

The provision of effective support in times of need or distress serves additional, longer-term purposes which facilitate the leaders' subsequent emotion-influence attempts. First, such support is an important predictor of Soldiers' emotions and emotional well-being. For instance, Boudens (2005) found that personal support and solidarity were among the most common sources of positive workplace emotions. Similarly, Dasborough (2006) reported that leader awareness behaviors were common sources of various positive emotions including comfort, calmness, and happiness. Owing to this greater well-being, the leader's role in providing future support will be diminished, as the Soldier will have less need for support and will have developed skills to cope with subsequent distress.

Second, the leader's use of empowering, considerate behavior typically strengthens the leader-follower relationship, generating increased rapport and trust (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), greater satisfaction (Ng & Sorensen, 2008), and less stress (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema,

2005; Viswesvaran et al., 1999). In turn, when the leader does need to provide support in the future, those attempts should be well-received and more efficacious. Finally, such support, and the favorable affective reactions that follow also have organizational implications including increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment and reduced turnover intentions (Ng & Sorensen, 2008).

Structuring Work Tasks with Consideration for Soldiers' Emotions

Consideration for others' emotions is a broad set of interrelated behaviors that impact task-related affect and, in turn, task-related behavior. More specifically, the leader's job is to create affective conditions that will facilitate effective task performance. While there is a voluminous literature on the influence of task conditions and characteristics on job attitudes (for reviews, see Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Warr, 2007), research explicitly examining affect per se is rare. Of the relevant research that does exist, it focuses almost exclusively on a small set of emotional reactions, most notably distress and anxiety (Morgeson et al., 2007). Recently, researchers have started to look at a broader range of affective outcomes, which illustrates the importance of task characteristics on worker emotional experience. For instance, Mignonac and Herrbach (2004) found that task-relevant occurrences (e.g., assigned an unpleasant assignment) were the most frequently experienced positive and negative workplace events. Basch and Fisher (2000) found the same result for positive emotions but not negative ones. Additionally, both Saavedra and Kwun (2000) and Fisher (2002) found that job characteristics explained significant variance in activated positive and negative affective reactions.

Research has identified specific task-affect relationships. First, research consistently reveals that job characteristics are at least as strongly related to positive affect as they are to negative affect (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Fisher, 2002; Saavedra & Kwun, 2000). Second, research provides evidence that different task events and features are related to dissimilar emotional reactions. Positive affect results most frequently from successful task completion and goal achievement (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004). However, the tasks must be challenging and the worker (Soldier or employee) must have some degree of autonomy or empowerment (Boudens, 2005; Dasborough, 2006; Saavedra & Kwun, 2000). In contrast, negative affect results from role stress (Fisher, 2002), emotional labor (Grandey 2000; 2003), non-challenging work (Fisher, 1993), and absence of direction for ambiguous projects (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Dasborough, 2006; Fisher, 2002; Saavedra & Kwun, 2000). These findings imply that Army leaders cannot simply strive to avoid negative emotions, but must also foster positive affect.

Creating the appropriate affect for a particular task serves two main functions. First, Army leaders can facilitate immediate performance benefits including increased task completion and goal achievements (Humphrey et al., 2007). Second, Army leaders are developing their Soldiers' capacity to overcome challenges with greater coping skills and efficacy (Maddi, 2002). Along these lines, the cumulative positive affect that follows from task success can translate into more positive job and organizational attitudes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The Army leader proficient in emotion management recognizes both the short- and long-term implications of creating certain affective states and is able to generate them effectively.

Providing Frequent Emotional "Uplifts"

Army leaders can enhance Soldier performance by providing emotional "uplifts" (Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009; Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005). Emotional uplifts can take various forms. First, Army leaders can provide praise and recognition of a Soldier's performance. Several inquiries show that these leader acts are among the most frequent causes of positive workplace emotions (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Boudens, 2005; Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2003; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004). It is also worth noting though that such praise, if excessive or unwarranted, can lose its emotional impact (Bowling, Beehr, Wagner, & Libkuman, 2005). Therefore, Army leaders need to assess how to deliver and the frequency of emotional uplifts in order to maximize benefits.

Army leaders skilled in EM also provide emotional uplifts through everyday language and demeanor for everyday tasks and routines (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008; Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Morris, 2000). Although these uplifts may appear more mundane because they are not tied to a specific behavior or outcome, they can have a significant influence on Soldiers' affect and the affective climate of the unit (Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005). Army leaders may provide uplifts using more direct mechanisms such as displays of humor (Priest & Swain, 2002; Shurcliff, 1968) or through non-conscious means such as mimicry, emotional contagion, and social comparison processes (Barsade, 2002; Bartel & Saavedra, 2000; Totterdell, 2000).

Extensive research shows that Army leaders can better influence workplace affect using emotional uplifts over traditional rewards such as raises and promotions (Dasborough, 2006; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004; Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002). While uplifts impact immediate outcomes (e.g., performance), their true benefits emerge in distal outcomes. For example, research demonstrates that consistent uplifts result in a more positive affective climate (Bartel & Saavedra, 2000; George, 1990), excitement, and higher levels of cooperation. Furthermore, research suggests Soldiers will be more satisfied with their leader (Bower, 1981; Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008) because the uplifts demonstrate their leader's concern for Soldiers' well being (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Viswesvaran et al., 1999). Based on her thematic analysis of emotion-evoking leader events, Dasborough (2006) draws the following conclusion: "the positive incidents were often small things, such as simply saying 'thank you' for completing a task. Most interestingly, leaders who frequently initiated small uplifting experiences for their employees were regarded as the best leaders in the organization, although specific uplifts were small in comparison to other positive events experienced by employees" (p. 171). The Army leader who can create these various positive conditions, in turn, should have more opportunity and greater effectiveness in influencing Soldiers later emotions.

Behaving in a Fair and Ethical Manner

This set of behaviors refers to leaders acting and making decisions in a manner that is fair, ethical, and demonstrates integrity (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005). Specifically, the category incorporates two related sets of behaviors, which we discuss in turn. One set of behaviors refers specifically to Army leaders' decision-making and resource allocation. Using the traditional terminology from the justice literature, a just leader makes decisions that are fair in a distributive and procedural manner (Adams, 1965; Colquitt, Greenberg, & Scott, 2005).

Distributive justice refers to the fairness or equity of outcomes across individuals. Procedural fairness refers to making decisions by following a certain set of rules and standards, such as those reflecting consistency, freedom from bias, ethicality, participation, representativeness, and others (Leventhal, 1980).

The importance of leaders acting in a fair manner for workers' attitudinal, motivational, and health outcomes is well-established (for reviews see Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005; van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & van Knippenberg, 2007). More recently, scholars have broadened this literature by examining the influence of fairness specifically with regard to the affective and emotional consequences of (un)fair decisions (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; De Cremer, 2007; van den Bos, 2003; Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999). This research documents that the experiences of fairness unfairness are emotional in nature (Bies & Tripp, 1996; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Mikula, 1987). For instance, research (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Bies & Tripp, 2001; Cropanzano & Baron, 1991; Goldman, 2003; Weiss, et al., 1999) demonstrates a consistent link between perceptions of unfair outcomes and negative affective reactions such as anger and frustration. Similarly, the provision of fair treatment repeatedly has been linked to positive affect such as happiness (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Weiss et al., 1999).

Second, leaders need to exhibit behaviors demonstrating integrity and in line with their values (Russell, 2001). Army leaders must execute these behaviors in a manner that Soldiers view them not merely as fair but as admirable, altruistic, or even courageous (Brown & Trevino, 2006). Example leader behaviors include "going to bat for employees" with upper management, "having the back" of their subordinates, demonstrating a high work ethic, "walking the talk," and ensuring that a unit operates in a socially responsible manner (Clawson, 1999; Rooney & Gottlieb, 2007). On the opposite pole, leaders failing to demonstrate such integrity may engage in behaviors such as stealing, being lazy, demonstrating arrogance, or "cooking the books" (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Kouzes & Posner, 1993).

Recent work demonstrates the emotional significance of leaders' behaviors demonstrating integrity and values. For instance, Fitness (2001) found that "morally reprehensible" acts (e.g., by leaders or coworkers) were the second most common source of employees' workplace anger. Examples of these acts included being dishonest, telling lies, stealing, cheating on expenses, and having a sexual relationship with a supervisor or subordinate. Notably, while some of these instances were also associated with judgments of unfairness, others caused anger simply because they were "wrong" and violated workplace rules. As another example, Dasborough (2006) reported that employees who saw their managers as only interested in client fees and the "bottom line" experienced feelings of disappointment and sometimes even disgust. In recent research, Pelletier and Bligh (2008) found that employees reported experiencing a host of emotions, such as cynicism, pessimism and paranoia as a result of organizational leaders' inappropriate behavior during a highly publicized ethical scandal.

As with the other sets of behaviors, acting fairly and ethically has two broad sets of consequences. First, (un)fair treatment has an immediate impact on behavior. Army leaders who act in a fair and equitable manner can trigger immediate acts of helping and cooperation, as

Soldiers' experiences of gratitude lead them to "pass on" the "goodwill" they have just received (McCullough, Kimeldorf, & Cohen, 2008). Conversely, Army leaders who act unfairly or without appropriate integrity may trigger anger and resentment, which can lead to acts of retaliation, aggression, and violence (Weiss et al., 1999).

Second, acting more or less fairly and ethically impacts Soldiers' longer-term outcomes. For instance, by behaving in an ethical manner, Army leaders create conditions in which Soldiers too will act more ethically (Sims & Brinkmann, 2002) and more courageously in initiating organizational change (Worline, Wrzesniewski, & Rafaeli, 2002). Also, these leader actions have important consequences for how the Soldier views and relates to the leader. Soldiers judge leaders who act in a more fair and ethical manner as more honest (Kouzes & Posner, 1993), trustworthy (van den Bos & Lind, 2002), likable (Brown & Trevino, 2006), and credible (Russell, 2001; Washington, Sutton, & Field, 2006). Conversely, Army leaders who engage in unfair or unethical behaviors may foster reactions of distrust and even hatred (Dasborough, 2006; Fitness, 2001). As a function of these reactions, Army leaders then will have more or less opportunity and credibility to influence Soldiers' emotions in later times of critical need.

Managing Interactions and Relationships among Coworkers

Leader EM skills ought to focus on behaviors that manage affective reactions resulting from Soldiers interacting with one another. Recent investigations converge in demonstrating that coworker relations are among the most common cause of workplace emotions (Elfenbein, 2007), and a number of researchers have demonstrated the connection between "acts of colleagues" and both positive and negative emotional reactions (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Bono et al., 2007; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004). Interestingly, the majority of research identifies positive emotions (or the lack of) as the typical emotional reaction to colleague interactions.

Leaders can manage colleague relations and the resultant emotions through two broad classes of behaviors. The first class involves leaders applying their emotion knowledge when structuring tasks including the formation of teams, assignment of responsibilities, and establishing norms and support. First, leaders can forecast team collective affect climate by selecting members based on their unique traits and disposition (George, 2001). By selecting members based on affective potential, the leader has a team, when motivated through the appropriate EM behaviors, can tackle a range of problems (e.g., systematic to ambiguous) and has established the foundation for a long-term successful team (Kelly & Barsade, 2001).

Second, leaders can structure the task including communication and responsibilities-based individual characteristics and the projected outcomes expected from the collage of unique attributes. For example, a leader knowing a devil's advocate team member would be beneficial to problem solving would include such an Soldier on the team. At the same time, a leader would forecast the possible emotional reactions and begin to plan interventions based on members' unique traits (Jehn, 1995; Tjosvold, 1997). Likewise, a leader would manage the group's affect towards more positive emotions when a problem required creative solutions (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005; Isen, & Baron, 1991).

The second broad class of behaviors involves leaders managing affect that results from coworker interactions. Success hinges on leaders accurately recognizing emotions displayed by Soldiers and then identifying the stimulus. The leader's success in managing these emotions, and especially those resulting from conflict and discord, can have dramatic effects on individual and team performance (Jordan & Troth, 2004). Part of the leader's job here also is to facilitate Soldiers development of the KSAs to manage future emotional peer exchanges. These facilitative behaviors can take many forms. For instance, leaders may help individuals develop a sense of the other party's (i.e., coworker's) perspective, thereby allowing the individual to develop more balanced attributions about the relationship issue and their own potential role in its development (De Dreu, Nauta, & van de Vliert, 1995; Tice & Baumeister, 1993). The goal is for the Soldier to understand the stimulus driving the emotional experience, and subsequently, to understand the impact of the emotion on the interactions with others. Over time, as Soldiers develop their own emotion management skills, the necessity of the leader intervening in coworker relations will be attenuated.

Maintaining Open and Frequent Communication

Army leaders leverage frequent open and forthcoming communication to influence Soldiers' emotional experience. Through communication Army leaders can shape a Soldier's emotional reaction to an event or experience by supplying clear and timely information. The provision of information is especially significant during times of change and uncertainty (e.g., change of command; just prior to and immediately after deployment), as these periods are characterized by intense and enduring mixed emotions such as fear, anger, and excitement (Bartunek, 1984; Kiefer, 2004). By engaging in communication, Army leaders can rein in harmful emotions and redirect a Soldier's attention to more beneficial emotions as well as influence several resultant outcomes.

First, Army leaders can use communication to exert direct influence over their Soldiers' emotions. The effect is the reduction of uncertainty and therefore mollifying anxiety about the change (Ashford, 1988; Cummings & Worley, 1993; Huy, 2002). Preliminary interviews with Soldiers suggest that timely information direct from their leader, and not from other sources (e.g., television news) help to mitigate negative emotions resulting from unknown deployment durations. Related, Kiefer (2004) reported that up-to-date information communicated from the leader helped to facilitate hope and optimism, which without the communication would not have manifested.

Second, leader communication can produce more accurate appraisals of the change and, in turn, spur the Soldiers to use more effective planning and coping strategies (Paterson & Hartel, 2002). Even if messages contain negative information, leaders can facilitate effective processing from their Soldiers by appropriately framing messages and in particular the emotional content (Hay & Hartel, 2000). In turn, Soldiers' resultant emotions (or attenuated emotions) from receiving this information should result in improved task performance. With regard to potentially negative outcomes, the provision of honest and accurate information should decrease distress, thereby allowing Soldiers to focus more on their relevant work tasks (Beal et al., 2005). In the case of positive changes, resultant optimism and enthusiasm (Kiefer, 2004) can lead to increased effort and persistence and in turn performance (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). It is

important to note that any information, and especially that regarding change and uncertainty, is subjective and that emotional reactions reflect one's interpretation of that information (Lazarus, 1991). Thus, part of the Army leader's function here is also to frame the message in a manner that reduces the emotional ambiguity a subordinate may experience (Huy, 2002). In addition, an Army leader may take the opportunity to alter the Soldier's emotional response by emphasizing possible future benefits (Egan, 2002).

Finally, and related to these other mechanisms, effective communication serves as a symbolic function by demonstrating the leader's and perhaps the organization's respect for Soldiers' informational and emotional needs (Tyler & Lind, 1992). In turn, Soldiers view the leader as more fair (Cobb, Wooten, & Folger, 1995) and trustworthy (van den Bos & Lind, 2002) and therefore are less likely to engage in the counterproductive or retaliatory behaviors that less just treatment can foster (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh 2005). In addition to impacting these judgments of leader fairness and ethicality, open and honest communication also influences judgments about the leaders' courage and integrity. Army leaders frequently refrain from sharing negative information out of fear for inciting hurt or angry reactions (see Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004 for example). However, doing so may lead to anger and frustration among Soldiers, not only because they fail to receive useful information but also because they infer that the leader sees them as "weak" and unable to shoulder bad news (Brown & Trevino, 2006). Evidence suggests that people tend to underestimate the resilience of others (Haidt, 2006, chapter 7), and leaders who are forthcoming cause subordinates to view them in better, not worse terms (Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004). Together, effective management of these affective reactions should improve overall performance and attitudes at the individual, team, and organizational level.

Knowledge, Skills, and Personality Factors Predictive of EM

Above, we outlined the leader EM criterion space consisting of eight fundamental categories of interrelated leader behaviors. The primary value of this exercise is to elucidate the specific relationships among leader EM behaviors and individual characteristics, which can be integrated into organizational procedures such as personnel selection and training. The following section discusses various characteristics (i.e., KSAOs) and their proposed relationships with the EM categories described above. Specifically, we first describe knowledge factors, skills, and some personality characteristics relevant to EM. The focus will be on knowledge and skills because these factors are more malleable and thus can be targeted for training interventions. These factors and their proposed linkages with the eight EM categories of behavior appear in Figure 1.

Although we discuss the KSAOs independently, they do not operate in isolation. Insofar as the categories or functions entail various behaviors, successful execution of the entire category requires possessing the characteristics that are predictive of each behavior. Recent research provides empirical evidence that KSAOs impact EM performance. For example, Kellett et al., (2006) demonstrated that leader "relations effectiveness" was dependent upon empathy which, in turn, was dependent upon the ability to identify others' emotions. Also, Rubin, Munz, and Bommer (2005) found that being more social (in terms of extraversion scores) only predicted transformational leader behavior when it was paired with emotion recognition skills. Thus, although we discuss these various KSAOs separately for the sake of clarity, one should keep in

mind that their effects often are interdependent or multiplicative. Future work exploring these various joint effects would be valuable.

Knowledge Factors Related to Leader EM Behavior

      Knowledge of emotion-evoking events. Knowledge of emotion-evoking events is defined as the Army leader knowing the factors and circumstances most likely to engender workplace emotions. The emotion literature identifies job characteristics as primary antecedents for emotions, including leader behaviors (Dasborough, 2006) and goal blockage (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). However, emotions can also manifest from non-work phenomena including family circumstances (Wharton & Erickson, 1993). This knowledge concerns both the factors and circumstances that cause affect and the particular emotions and emotional consequences that characterize those sources. This latter aspect is closely tied to knowledge of emotions.

      The usefulness of this knowledge factor extends to all EM behaviors. Soldiers do not operate in isolation but are constantly surrounded and/or engaged in some event capable of eliciting one or more emotional responses. A leader with this knowledge should be able to predict a Soldier's emotional response, and as such, formulate an appropriate EM intervention. In formulating the intervention, it is important to accurately predict the emotions likely to result from the stimulus. The difficulty arises from the fact that most events elicit multiple emotional reactions (Watson, 2000). Therefore, the Army leader will need to account for the interaction between experienced emotions (positive and negative). If successful, the leader's intervention will ensure the Soldier's resultant attitude and/or behavior is in line with organizational expectations and at the same, take into full consideration positive and negative consequences the Soldier may experience.

      Self-insight. A second type of knowledge considered is self-insight, which is the degree to which one is able to accurately assess one's characteristics, tendencies, and current emotions as it relates to EM performance. These characteristics and tendencies primarily are those KSAOs listed in the model such as emotion recognition and emotion support skill but may also include other personality factors (e.g., cultural biases) which could impact delivery of EM (Parker & Axtell, 2001). These latter biases, if not recognized, can have a significant impact on one's interactions with and actions towards others (Banaji & Greenwald, 1995; Monteith & Voils, 1998). Self-insight also includes awareness about one's current circumstances, especially in terms of one's affective state and how that state may impact interactions and relations with others (Keltner & Haidt, 1999).

      Considerable research reveals the benefits of self-insight on leader effectiveness (Church, 1997; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). Some researchers argue that self-insight is among the most important attributes of the effective leader (Shipper & Dillard, 1994). First, self-insight enables leaders to accurately assess one's strengths and weaknesses as it relates to EM skills. This understanding will enable Army leaders to better manage their Soldiers' emotions as well as help them to self-develop their EM skills. For example, leaders who accurately perceive their well-developed emotion support skills should have high levels of efficacy in delivering effective emotional social support, and therefore will rely on this behavior as a primary way to achieve outcomes such as rapport and interpersonal trust. Another leader, who accurately recognizes a

lack of this skill, instead may choose to provide more instrumental versus emotional support. Conversely, leaders who overestimate their emotion support skills may inappropriately attempt to provide emotional support, thereby perhaps causing less rapport and a decreased likelihood of employees approaching them in the future.

The second benefit of self-insight for leaders is the ability to select situations and behaviors that maximize emotion benefits based on their current emotional state. Consider, for instance, an Army Leader who just learned of being denied a promotion, and, in turn, decides to reschedule a feedback meeting because he recognizes that his current anger may impede his capacity for delivering appropriate feedback (Gaddis et al., 2004). That he recognizes his anger reflects self-insight; that he also recognizes the source and the potential effects of such anger reflect knowledge of emotions.

Self-insight plays a key role in several of the categories of EM behavior in the model (See Figure 1). First, self-insight would facilitate an Army leader's ability to effectively use emotional displays to influence Soldier behavior. Self-insight would assist Army leaders in identifying emotional displays based on performance end states. For example, an Army leader possessing self-insight would be able to more effectively harness one's charisma when interacting with Soldiers and direct them towards a standard of performance (e.g., by using inspiring language, setting high expectations; Erez et al., 2008; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Conversely, leaders who accurately recognize their lack of charisma may choose a different strategy or, alternatively, defer to a more adept colleague to incite the intended motivation and performance.

Second, and as evident in the feedback example above, self-insight should allow leaders to behave consistent with interpersonal factors. For instance, greater self-insight can provide leaders insight into their biases, and, in turn, prevent them from displaying those biases (Parker & Axtell, 2001). Similarly, to the extent leaders are aware of their negative interpersonal tendencies (e.g., becoming defensive, speaking over others), they should be able to adjust accordingly in adopting a more sensitive and respectful demeanor (Egan, 2002).

Another category of behaviors for which self-insight may be significant is demonstrating consideration and support for employees. Leaders who are aware of their emotion recognition skills, for instance, should be confident in their judgments about Soldiers' emotional needs, and therefore reliant upon those judgments. In addition, because self-insight is also related to awareness and understanding of others' emotions (Zuckerman, Hall, DeFrank, & Rosenthal, 1976), it may help leaders in recognizing when others are in need of support.

Knowledge of emotions and their consequences. This knowledge factor focuses on the nature and consequences of specific emotions. The importance of this factor stems from research demonstrating that different discrete emotions, including those of same valence (e.g., fear and anger) are associated with different processes (Lerner & Keltner, 2000) and, in turn, with dissimilar behavioral outcomes. As an illustration, consider the emotions anger and fear, two negative valence emotions. Anger generally is associated with being "wronged" or mistreated and is characterized by high degrees of certainty and control (Lazarus, 1999; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Conversely, fear is characterized by a sense of uncertainty and a lack of control (Lerner &

Keltner, 2000; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). The idiosyncratic nature of different emotions is especially significant here because of the unique cognitive and behavioral tendencies that follow. For instance, the experience of anger can trigger judgments of mistreatment and blame in subsequent, completely unrelated interactions (Quigley & Tedeschi, 1996). Also, it can induce a more "heuristic" processing style as well as more belligerent communication or actions (Bodenhausen, Sheppard & Kramer, 1994; Tiedens, 2001; Tiedens & Linton, 2001). Alternatively, fear induces more systematic processing given the associated uncertainty (Lerner & Keltner, 2000; 2001) and also fosters a less, rather than more, assertive interaction style (Taylor, 1991). A major implication of these findings, and perhaps the most important as it relates to leaders exercising EM, is that effective navigation of the various EM behavioral categories necessitates an understanding of how Soldiers' particular emotions will impact their subsequent processing and behavior. While potentially useful for all of the categories of EM in the model, this knowledge should be especially important for three of them.

First, Army leaders will be more effective at using emotional displays to influence Soldiers' attitudes and behaviors. Initially, a leader can use the knowledge of emotion appraisal tendency to identify the appropriate emotion(s) to be used when interacting with a particular Soldier. For example, the leader notices a Soldier is exhibiting fear, which can be detrimental to performance and therefore employ behaviors to change the Soldier's emotion (Huy, 2002). Conversely, because positive affect can signal a lack of danger (Schwarz & Clore, 1983), a leader may actually try to dampen or replace such affect when real danger is potentially present and consequential (George & Zhou, 2002). Furthermore, a leader's knowledge of a particular emotion will guide the leader's emotional display which, in turn, results in Soldiers accurately perceiving the expressed emotion (i.e., the leader clearly communicates the emotion through facial expressions, gestures, and/or tone to ensure the Soldier accurately perceives the expressed emotion).

Second, knowledge of emotions will help leaders be authentic when demonstrating consideration and support. Specifically, the knowledge will help Army leaders identify appropriate responses to Soldiers' emotional displays (Hill & O'Brian, 1999). As an illustration of this point, consider three different Soldiers who are experiencing sadness, anger, and fear, respectively. Upon recognizing a sad Soldier, a leader who understands sadness may be a signal that one desires sympathy (Clark & Taraban, 1991) can provide the Soldier with appropriate emotional support (Burleson, 2003). Conversely, when encountering an angry Soldier, the leader's awareness that anger is associated with blameworthiness (Lerner & Keltner, 2000) can help the Soldier to reappraise sources of blame. Additionally, knowing that anger can lead to aggressive or retaliatory acts (Bies & Tripp, 1998) can aid the leader in taking steps to prevent these acts. Finally, a Soldier experiencing fear may be apprehensive due to an upcoming event. As such, the leader can help the employee reframe the event from aversive to beneficial to the individual and to the organization as a whole (Beck & Clark, 1997; Gross, 2002).

Finally, Army leaders can apply this knowledge when structuring tasks. Every task has the potential to garner an emotional response from the Soldier. A leader can maximize Soldier performance by applying knowledge of affective triggers when designing the task. In addition, the leader can apply this knowledge to assess the Soldier's progress and to intervene when necessary. For example, a leader who perceives a Soldier experiencing frustration – an emotion

associated with goal blockage (Berkowitz, 1989) – could work with the Soldier to develop a solution (e.g., restructuring task requirements).

Knowledge of organizational norms regarding emotional displays. This knowledge enables Army leaders to identify and apply organizational norms regarding the appropriate expression and communication to EM behaviors (Ashforth & Saks, 2002). These norms can pertain to pairings of emotional display and context (Hoschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989), as well as to the appropriateness of emotional expressivity in general (Mumby & Putnam, 1992). Furthermore, these norms may be different for individual internal to the organization (e.g., peers) compared to those external such as stakeholders (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Grandey, 2003). A leader can either foster current or enforce new norms that benefit the organization and yet take into consideration the Soldiers' needs. Effective utilization of this factor requires the leader drawing upon other EM factors. Research suggests that leaders generally create and enforce emotional display norms through strategies including monitoring, training, reinforcing, and modeling the expression of desired displays (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988; Wilk & Moynihan, 2005). These strategies map most closely onto two categories in the model.

First, Army leaders can apply this knowledge to their own displays as a means to influence their Soldiers. Research suggests employees are more in tune to the leader's attitudes and behaviors, and subsequently will often mirror these including displays of emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). FM 6-22 (U.S. Department of the Army, 2006) states leaders lead by example, which suggests Soldiers – like employees referenced in research – will also look towards their leader and mimic attitudes, behaviors, and emotional displays. Army leaders can leverage their Soldiers' familiarity by reserving particular emotional displays as a means to get their Soldiers' full attention. For example, a leader who is aware of the norm to not show anger could use an angry display to shock the Soldiers as a way to emphasize the need for a change or intervention (Connelly & Ruark, 2010).

Second, leaders can use this knowledge to be more effective using consideration and support behaviors. To be effective, these behaviors must appear genuine and be acceptable as defined by norms. A leader can either demonstrate behaviors that fall within the norm, or the leader can modify the existing norm by repeatedly demonstrating the behaviors. An Army leader may establish a norm conducive to emotional expression for multiple reasons including to increase group identity and cohesion (Bennis & Shepard, 1956), to reduce psychological strain or burnout (Gross, 1998; Pennebaker, 1997), to increase psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999) and to build rapport and trust (Huy, 2002). These outcomes result in part due to emotional displays from both the leader and the Soldiers.

However, a leader needs to strike a balance between utilizing emotional norms as an influence process and overall organizational good. Research indicates that the extent to which leaders emphasize subordinates' conformity to these display norms is a strong predictor of actual subordinate adherence (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Tsai, 2001). For example, intense and/or unwarranted expression can impair performance at all levels and may induce counter-productive environments (Keltner, Young, Oemig, Heerey, & Monarch, 1998). Furthermore, norms can

become too restrictive and counter-productive to employees' attitudes and behaviors (Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989). Taken together, these findings imply that the Army leader must be aware not only of general display norms, but also of the appropriateness and utility of these displays as a function of the timing and context (Huy, 2002; Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988).

Skills Related to Leader EM Behavior

Knowledge is often necessary but not sufficient to enact effective EM. Leaders must also possess the skills necessary to transform knowledge into behaviors. These skills directly impact Soldiers' performance (Schmitt, Cortina, Ingerick, & Wiechmann, 2003). Skills fall into various categories, such as psychomotor, physical, or interpersonal. Also, skills can be domain specific or more general (Dudley & Cortina, 2008). Our model targets skills leaders need to be effective at EM. Skills, like knowledge factors, can be developed through training programs (Campbell, 1990).

Similar to knowledge factors, skills are not independent from one another. Some skills (e.g., emotion support skill and communication skill) are conceptually related and overlap in some proficiencies (e.g., active listening, maintaining appropriate eye-contact). Similarly, some act in tandem and are dependent upon one another. For instance, perspective-taking and emotion recognition are important, if not necessary, precursors for the implementation of presentation skill. In any case, this overlap is unavoidable and is consistent with the well-documented diversity in the terminology used to describe or catalogue these skills (e.g., interpersonal skills, communication skills, social intelligence; cf. Spitzberg & Cupach, 1989) and with the fact that existing taxonomies of these skills vary considerably in their dimensionality and in the level of abstraction at which such skills are discussed (Riggio, 1986; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2002; Zaccaro, 2002).

Emotion recognition. Emotion recognition reflects the capacity to accurately recognize others' emotional states. Specifically, it entails a joint process of identifying others' emotional expressions and then accurately classifying the emotions that underlie those expressions (Ickes, 1993). Because emotional expression occurs both verbally and nonverbally (DePaulo, 1992; Ekman, 1993), emotion recognition requires competence with respect to decoding both types of behaviors and interpreting their meaning in light of each other (Burgoon & Hoobler, 2002; Riggio, 1986). Thus, this skill requires simultaneously attending to and interpreting various aspects of communication, such as the content and tone of verbal expressions as well as nonverbal cues including body posture, eye-gaze, and physical appearance (Wagner, MacDonald, & Manstead, 1986; Yager, Strong, Roan, Matsumoto, & Metcalf, 2009). It also includes recognizing and making appropriate inferences about the absence of an overt behavior due, for example, to one's apprehension to speak or one's use of "the silent treatment" (Clark & Taraban, 1991).

Proficiency in recognizing others' emotions represents one of the fundamental interpersonal competencies that partially underlie effective social functioning and influence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Riggio & Carney, 2003). In the current model, the primary importance of this skill is that it provides knowledge regarding the discrepancy between where the individual "is" and "should be" emotionally. The "should be" aspect reflects the emotional state that the

leader deems most beneficial with respect to the individual's relevant task or activity. Leaders' knowledge about the state that would be most beneficial derives from expertise regarding the nature of the task and of the impact of different emotions on task motivation and performance (see above). Research indicates that proficiency in emotion perception or recognition is related to various organizational outcomes such as job status (Rosenthal, Hall, DiMatteo, Rogers, & Archer, 1979), perceived leader effectiveness (George, 2000; Kellett et al., 2006; Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, 2007; Rosenthal et al., 1979), transformational leadership (Rubin et al., 2005), perceived physician effectiveness (DiMatteo, Friedman, & Taranta, 1979; Tickle-Degnen, 1998), and number of cars sold by automobile salespersons (Byron, Terranova & Nowicki, 2007).

While emotion recognition arguably is important for each of the eight EM sets of behavior in our model, we highlight its role here in two specific categories for which it may be of greatest consequence. First, emotion recognition skill is essential when leaders implement emotional displays to influence Soldier behavior. Essentially, the skill allows a leader to select the most efficient EM behavior based on the discrepancy between the Soldier's current emotional state and the ideal state for current work conditions. For instance, leaders who perceive that their unit is experiencing unproductive levels of high positive affect may take actions (e.g., modeling, adopting a certain tone) to counter the complacency and lack of critical evaluation that such positive affect can foster (George & Zhou, 2002). In addition, the skill allows leaders to assess the effectiveness of the EM behavior and, if needed, to formulate a new strategy.

Second, emotion recognition likely is essential for demonstrating support and consideration for Soldiers. Research documents that decoding and interpreting emotional expressions are fundamental aspects of the support process (Campbell, Kagan, & Krathwohl, 1971; Costanzo & Philpott, 1986). Upon recognizing Soldiers' counter-productive affective state, leaders then can implement other skills such as emotional support skill in addressing those emotions. Additionally, gauging Soldiers' emotional reactions provides the leader insight into how the individual experiences and makes sense of specific circumstances and of life in general (Pescosolido, 2002). Leaders who fail to accurately recognize these states will miss the opportunity to provide support or gain such insight and, in turn, to foster the outcomes that such insight can generate (e.g., greater well-being, rapport between the leader and Soldier).

Perspective-taking. We define perspective-taking skill as the capacity to appreciate another's perspective or viewpoint (Roan, Strong, Foss, Yager, Gehlbach, & Metcalf, 2009). While perspective-taking is related to empathy, the two are not synonymous (Kellett et al., 2006). Traditionally, scholars have conceptualized perspective-taking as a skill, more of a cognitive process of "putting oneself in another's shoes," while empathy (or empathetic concern) is more of a trait focused on sharing the affective experience of the other individual (Davis, 1983; Davis, Hull, Young, & Warren, 1987). The primary importance of perspective-taking skill here is that it enables the leader to gauge employees' viewpoints and perspectives. With regard to our theoretical model, we are most interested in those viewpoints, judgments, et cetera, which precede or follow from workplace emotions (Lazarus, 1991; Scherer, 1999). Being able to access these viewpoints then serves other purposes (e.g., enabling a leader to understand an employee's views and values; Pescosolido, 2002) and thus to tailor subsequent actions that match those

views. In sum, the skill is useful both in formulating the strategy and assessing the effectiveness of the behavior as well as modifying the strategy if needed.

While the skill is useful across all EM categories, we will highlight a critical yet less obvious category of frequent and open communication. This skill provides leaders with the knowledge of the content and frequency of communication a Soldier requires for a particular situation. Furthermore, we suspect communication content and frequency is dictated by the type of situation and as such, a leader will likely need to frequently use the skill. In essence, a leader will likely adopt a different communication pattern when a Soldier approaches the leader for emotion support (Burleson, 1985) than when a Soldier's well-being is less salient. An example would be a situation in which a leader must decide what to communicate to Soldiers regarding the restructuring of unit policies. On one hand, a leader may not communicate the negative aspects (e.g., possibility of reduced break time) due to hesitancy of imparting bad news (Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004). However, a leader possessing perspective-taking skills would understand the Soldiers' needs for information as a way to reduce uncertainty (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Although this is one example of how a leader can use this skill, its role is important for all categories.

Presentation skill. Presentation skill reflects the capacity to portray desired outward expressions. This skill is related to similar skills such as "role-playing" and impression management (Chemers, 1997; Riggio et al., 2003). In applying presentation skills, one explicitly plans to use these proficiencies with the intent to achieve some social influence. Presentation skill actually subsumes several more specific aptitudes related to tailoring one's verbal (e.g., tone, pitch, emotionality) and nonverbal (e.g., facial expression, body posture, physical distance) behavioral manifestations. Enacting these behaviors generally entails "dampening" one's outward expressions, to appear serene or somber, for instance, or amplifying them, to appear angry or excited (Côté, 2005). It is important to emphasize that deliberate attempts to manufacture a given appearance can have drawbacks. These "engineered" appearances often appear disingenuous (Ekman, 1992) and, in turn, unsuccessful, if not deleterious (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2002; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Furthermore, these attempts draw heavily on self-regulatory capacity (Gross, 1998) and therefore can result in strain (see Gross, Richards, & John, 2006, for a review) and compromised task performance over time (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000).

Here, we focus on two sets of leader EM behavior for which these skills should be consequential. First, presentation skills should enable leaders to effectively craft emotional displays to influence others' behavior. Army leaders proficient in these skills are more effective at choosing and implementing the appropriate displays. For example, leaders who are socially perceptive can determine when different displays would be relevant and valuable. In addition, the implementation of these displays entails the successful engagement and the use of behavioral regulation in the service of executing verbal and nonverbal presentation skills (Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Morris & Keltner, 2000).

These skills also should be important in providing frequent emotional uplifts. The rationale here is similar to that for the category described above. However, providing these emotional uplifts likely requires some unique presentation skills. For instance, one way to

increase Soldiers' immediate positive affect is through the use of narrative, such as stories or metaphors (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Thus, one might consider "storytelling" or its constituent skills to be important for this process. Similarly, to the degree leaders are skilled in using humor they can provide these uplifts (Priest & Swain, 2002). Also, research on charismatic leadership suggests that the use of certain forms of language, such as using visionary terms or alliteration, can lead to positive affect (Bono & Ilies, 2006). Worth pointing out is that these latter skills may be particularly difficult to develop, especially insofar as proficiency with these behaviors (e.g. humor) is more dispositional in nature (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1991).

Emotion support. Emotion support skill enables leaders to help others manage their emotions and the sources of those emotions. This is complex and requires proficiency in empathic accuracy, active listening, using verbal and nonverbal prompts to solicit information, and enhancing others' self-insight when providing support (Burleson, 2003; Egan, 2002). Leaders possessing this skill exhibit behaviors demonstrating care and interest in others while avoiding behaviors such as discounting others' distress (Burleson, 2003; Cutrona & Russell, 1990).

The skill is complex and multifaceted. Although this skill allows leaders to address immediate emotional needs, the greater utility is in developing Soldiers' capacity to manage their emotions (Egan, 2002; Stroebe & Stroebe, 1996). Leaders possessing emotion support skills are able to increase feelings of autonomy and self-worth instead of engendering those of incompetence, neediness, or even resentment (Caplan & Samter, 1999). They allow others to grow from, instead of necessarily avoiding adversity, and, in turn, to develop their strengths and resources (Maddi, 2002). Owing to these realized strengths and resources, Soldiers then are better equipped to address, or perhaps prevent, subsequent challenges (Stroebe & Stroebe, 1996).

The emotion support skill is integral for the leader EM behavior demonstrating consideration and support. Research reveals that possessing emotion support skills positively predicts attempts at providing support (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002). Related research looking at trained therapists found that emotional support skills impacted the effectiveness of intervention as measured by patients' outcomes (Ellis, 1984). According to these results, Army leaders who possess emotional support skills should better be able to relieve employees' distress and enhance their coping capacity (Applegate & Delia, 1980). Specifically, this skill predicts the use of behaviors that demonstrate caring and concern while also fostering a sense of competence and autonomy (Egan, 2002).

Leaders also utilize this skill when assigning and structuring work tasks. The skill allows leaders to enhance and develop their Soldiers' strengths and increase efficacy. The leader can provide emotional support along with other leadership behaviors to a Soldier completing a challenging task. The leader would perceive a Soldier's emotional response to some aspect of the task and determine an appropriate intervention that spurs the Soldier forward towards goal attainment. In the end, the Soldier's emotion management and efficacy is increased.

Personality Traits Related to Leader EM Behavior

In the preceding two sections, we outlined the knowledge and skills in our model which we posit to influence the various sets of EM behavior. In the following section, we outline eight personality traits that research suggests will impact the effectiveness of leader EM behaviors. The discussion for each trait is brief and cites research evidencing its impact on leader EM behaviors.

Neuroticism, negative affectivity (NA), and behavioral inhibition system (BIS). Here we discuss three related traits – neuroticism, negative affectivity, and the behavioral inhibition system. All three traits share the dispositional tendency to experience negative emotions (e.g., guilt, distress, anger) paired with a negative self- and world-perspective (Watson, 2000). Extensive research indicates that negative affectivity and neuroticism are closely linked both statistically and in terms of their phenomenological and psychological nature and correlates (Nemanick & Munz, 1997; Watson, 2000; Watson & Clark, 1984). In short, a person high in this trait is relatively sensitive and overly reactive to negative stimuli. Specifically, Watson and colleagues, building on the seminal work of Gray (1970), have suggested that neuroticism (and NA) represents the subjective emotional component of a basic bio-behavioral avoidance system termed the Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS). Supportive of this idea, higher NA predicts greater reactivity to threatening and negative mood inductions (Cacioppo, Gardner, & Berntson, 1999; Larsen & Ketelaar, 1991) and higher self-reported BIS (Carver & White, 1994). For brevity, we shall use *neuroticism* to represent all three similar traits.

Neuroticism will exhibit a strong negative relationship with EM performance (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Research on intra- and interpersonal manifestations of higher neuroticism supports our expectation. The negative impact of neuroticism on intrapersonal influence occurs by limiting the resources a leader has to manage others' emotions due to the need to manage ones negative affect (Beal, et al., 2005; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000; Watson, 2000). As a result of constant monitoring, a leader will be unable to provide Soldiers with emotional uplifts as needed. In addition, the lack of resources will likely impede the leader's ability to consider the Soldiers' emotions when allocating and/or structuring tasks.

The absence of beneficial support behaviors may increase the *presence* of deleterious behaviors. Research on emotion contagion processes (Anderson, Keltner, & John, 2003) suggests that leaders higher in neuroticism may transmit their negative affect through interpersonal channels including language and nonverbal (e.g. facial) expressions (Bono & Ilies, 2006). For a leader characterized by high neuroticism, the leader's expressed negative affect may appear hostile in nature, and in turn, engender negative affect in Soldiers (Watson, 2000). The outcome is that a leader instigates resentment and counterproductive behaviors from the Soldiers (Dalal, 2005).

Extraversion, positive affectivity (PA), and behavioral activation system (BAS). The traits extraversion, PA, and BAS are in essence the disposition to experience positive emotions such as joy, enthusiasm, and excitement (Watson, 2000). These characteristics also positively relate to having a more favorable self-/world-outlook and possessing a greater psychological well-being (Steel, Schmidt, & Shultz, 2008; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). Paralleling the

findings regarding neuroticism and NA, research consistently links PA and extraversion, both in terms of the statistical relationship between the two traits and with respect to their psychological nature and correlates (Thoresen et al., 2003; Watson, 2000). Watson**,** David, and Suls (1999) have suggested that, just as neuroticism is associated with sensitivity to negative or threatening stimuli and to an inhibition system, extraversion (and PA) is related to sensitivity and reactivity to positive or potentially favorable stimuli and to the Behavioral Activation System (BAS). Supportive of this claim, research links higher levels of extraversion (which is the term we use in discussing all three of these traits) to lowered thresholds and greater reactivity to positive mood inducements (Cacioppo et al., 1999; Larsen & Ketelaar, 1991) and to higher self-reported BAS (Carver & White, 1994). As it relates to leadership, Judge et al (2002), in a meta-analysis of personality and leadership, reported that extraversion was the strongest and most consistent predictor of leader effectiveness of the five traits composing the Five-Factor model. Wong and Law (2002) found similar relationships with regard to PA.

Several streams of research suggest that extraversion would improve a leader display of EM behaviors. First, Army leaders high in extraversion will be better equipped to select and enact EM behaviors. Research showed individuals high in extraversion regulate their emotions more effectively thereby freeing up additional resources (Ben-Zur, Yagil, & Oz, 2005; Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007).The additional resources allows an Army leader to more critically assess the needs of the Soldier(s) and select appropriate EM behaviors. Second, extraversion has been linked to an individual's desire to interact with others (George, 1996). Extrapolating from this literature, extraversion presents an Army leader with more opportunities to influence Soldiers' emotions and subsequently impact their performance behaviors (Ashkanasy & Newcombe, 2001; Engle & Lord, 1997; Fox & Spector, 2000).

Extraversion also promotes better EM through greater emotional openness and expressiveness (Buck, Miller, & Caul, 1974). This expressiveness enhances charismatic characteristics of leaders (Judge & Bono, 2000; Lewis, 2000; Thrash & Elliot, 2004) and impacts the effectiveness of the leader's attempts to influence Soldiers' performance. Through charismatic displays, an Army leader provides the affective component of motivation a Soldier may need to perform at a higher level, and ultimately needed to achieve the desired outcomes.

Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness, which exhibits a moderate positive relationship with leader effectiveness in general (Judge et al., 2002), will influence the leader's effective application of EM behaviors. First, conscientiousness contains a self-regulatory component, which suggests leaders will be better equipped to monitor and control their own behaviors when engaging their Soldiers (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Specifically, Army leaders will be able to interact with Soldiers in a more tactful manner, which is a component of leader intelligence as defined by the FM 6-22 (U.S. Department of the Army, 2006).

Conscientiousness influences a leader's propensity to engage in EM behaviors. Costa and McCrae (1992, p. 16) describe less conscientious individuals and their regard to ethicality and state, "low scorers are not necessarily lacking in moral principles, but they are less exacting in applying them." Extracting from this research, Army leaders will be more thorough and detailed when exhibiting fair and ethical behaviors to ensure Soldiers readily see these behaviors (which are behaviors expected from all Army leaders and Soldiers), perceive the importance of these

behaviors, and self-develop from these displays. The subsequent impact of perceived fairness may result in better relationships between leaders and Soldiers, which may increase overall cooperation and helping behaviors (Dalal, 2005).

Self-monitoring. Self-monitoring is the regulation of one's attitudes, behaviors, and emotional displays to ensure alignment with social norms. Research has shown individuals reporting high self-monitoring tendencies also exhibited greater concern for the appropriateness of their behaviors for a given social situation. Alternatively, individuals who reported low self-monitoring behaviors were less motivated to attend to social cues and were less capable of regulating their behaviors as a function of those cues. Instead, their behavior was more likely to reflect their inner attitudes and emotions (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000).

Both laboratory and field research has documented the importance of self-monitoring for leaders. The research consistently showed that higher self-monitors were more likely to emerge and be nominated as leaders (Dobbins, Long, Dedrick, & Clemons, 1990; Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991) and were rated as more effective leaders (Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002). Many of the processes that underlie the effectiveness of higher self-monitors also should aid their EM performance, particularly for the categories of using emotional displays to influence others' behavior and for interacting consistent with contextual and interpersonal factors. Direct support for these ideas comes from research that showed higher self-monitors were better adept at regulating their emotional displays (Friedman, DiMatteo, & Tarant, 1980). For instance, Snyder's (1974) seminal work revealed that high self-monitors were especially proficient in accurately communicating an arbitrarily chosen emotion as perceived by judges who were blind to the chosen emotion. More recently, Bono and Vey (2007) found that on two separate tasks requiring the expression of either anger or enthusiasm, respectively, high self-monitoring predicted higher levels of emotional performance.

Empathy. Empathy represents the ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them oneself (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). Of the several personality characteristics in the model, research suggests that empathy may be the strongest and most consequential predictor of leader EM performance. In particular, research links empathy with relevant outcomes such as leader emergence (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2002; Wolff et al., 2002), a relationship-oriented style of leadership (Woodall & Kogler Hill, 1982), perceived leader interpersonal effectiveness (Kellett et al., 2006), and favorable employee reactions (Haddad & Samarneh, 1999).

Empathy will impact several leader EM categories. First, the ability will impact the effectiveness of the leader's emotional displays. Deriving from their knowledge and understanding of others' emotions, empathetic leaders should be able to tailor their displays to best achieve the desired motivational or behavioral responses from their Soldiers (George, 2000; Lewis, 2000). In addition, leaders higher in empathy should be able to enact more controlled displays based on research linking empathy to higher emotional regulation (Eisenberg & Okun, 1996).

Second, empathy may influence the leader's effectiveness in structuring Soldiers' work tasks. Wolff and colleagues (2002) suggest that empathy helps the leader make sense of the task

environment and its impact on employees' emotional experiences. Possessing this knowledge, an Army leader would be able to structure tasks and then assign the Soldiers whose capabilities optimize self-development including emotional resources.

Finally, given that empathy is a strong predictor of providing support (Trobst, Collins, & Embree, 1994), it should increase the propensity of leaders to engage in consideration and support behaviors with their Soldiers. In addition, empathy should also lead to greater effectiveness in the actual provision of such support. As Kellett et al (2006) stated in describing empathy, "We mimic the other person and in the excitement of our spontaneous response our attention is almost completely absorbed. Thus, the empathizer becomes personally involved and conveys reassurance, recognition, and acceptance (Katz, 1963, p. 8)" Indeed, research shows that empathy is a strong determinant of social support quality and effectiveness (Batson, 1987; Thoits, 1986). Related to this idea, the greater sharing and understanding of emotions that characterize this trait also should lead empathetic leaders to be more interpersonally tactful and to recognize when emotional uplifts are appropriate.

Charisma. In the organizational literature, charisma is generally regarded as a type of leadership (Gardner & Avolio, 1998). While definitions of charisma differ, most treatments converge on the notion that charismatic leaders are those who use idealized influence and inspirational motivation to impact their employees' perceptions and behaviors (Bass, 1985; House & Shamir, 1993). While charismatic leader behaviors are trainable to some degree (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996), there is also a large dispositional component to charisma (Bono & Judge, 2004). Consistent with others (Friedman, Prince, Riggio, & DiMatteo, 1980), charisma is treated as an individual difference variable in the current model.

Research supports the inclusion of charisma in the leader emotion management (LEM) model. First, scholars have begun to recognize that there is a large affective component to the charisma construct. In particular, researchers have discovered that one of the primary means by which charismatic leaders achieve these beneficial outcomes is through the use of emotion (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Conger & Kanungo, 1994; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998; Wasielewski, 1985). Second, literature links charisma to various indices of leader effectiveness, such as effectiveness ratings (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996), employee performance on creative tasks (Sosik, Kahai, & Avolio, 1999), employee motivation (Bono & Judge, 2003), employee cooperation (De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002), and trust (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

Charisma influences the effectiveness of several leader EM categories. This ability ties into the leader's skill to craft emotional displays meant to influence Soldiers' performance. Research demonstrates a strong link between high charismatic ability and emotional expressivity, in particular to displaying positive nonverbal behaviors (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Cherulnik, Donley, Wiewel, & Miller, 2001; Friedman et al., 1980). Increased emotional expression by the leader influences the Soldiers' emotional states consciously when the Soldiers endorse the leader's inspirational message and unconsciously through contagion and social comparison processes (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Erez et al., 2008; Friedman, Riggio, & Casella, 1988; Johnson, 2008; Megerian, & Sosik, 1997; Sy et al., 2005). Outcomes include increased satisfaction with the

leader, perceptions of leader effectiveness, and change in goal-directed behaviors (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Connelly & Ruark, 2010; Kaplan et al., 2009; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005).

Owing to this same positive expressivity, charismatic leaders also likely provide their Soldiers with emotional uplifts. Specifically, the uplifts can take the form of emotional spillover from charismatic leaders' displaying these positively activated emotions (Damen, van Knippenberg, & van Knippenberg, 2008) or can result from these leaders' inspirational language (Shamir, Arthur, & House, 1994). Consistent with these ideas, research demonstrates that charismatic leaders' affect leads to increased positive affect and decreased negative affect among their employees (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Erez et al., 2008; Friedman et al., 1988). Generalizing to the Army, a charismatic leader is able to change Soldiers' affective state through positive emotional displays.

Agreeableness. Agreeableness is another of the Five Factor model (FFM) traits. As a key interpersonal dimension of personality, agreeableness refers to one's tendency to be accommodative, caring, tolerant, trusting, good-natured and soft-hearted (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Research on agreeableness and leader effectiveness, in general, has produced contradictory results (Bono & Judge, 2004). Taken together, these findings suggest that agreeableness does not have a uniformly positive or negative influence on Army leaders' emotion management performance, but instead that its influence depends on the nature of the emotion management that the situation demands, but instead that its influence is complex and contingent upon various moderating factors.

In contexts that require the provision of emotional support, such as when Soldiers lose a comrade, more agreeable leaders should be able to offer appropriate concern and understanding. Conversely, in situations where Army leaders need to appear sterner, such as when disciplining a Soldier, being more agreeable likely would be disadvantageous. In this latter circumstance, more agreeable leaders may fail to enact the necessary behaviors given the value they place on affiliation and their distaste for potential conflict (Graziano, Jensen-Cambell, & Hair, 1996). In sum, we surmise that the impact of agreeableness on leader EM performance is an intricate one. While we would expect a slight positive main effect between leader agreeableness and EM effectiveness, this relationship also likely depends on the leaders' other characteristics and on particular contextual considerations.

Emotional expressivity. The final characteristic in the model, emotional expressivity, reflects the extent to which people outwardly express their emotions (Kring, Smith, & Neale, 1994). While psychology has explored the nature and consequences of individual differences in expressivity (see Gross & John, 1998; Kring et al., 1994 for reviews), little research exists that investigates these in the management arena (Friedman et al., 1988; Groves, 2006). To further complicate the review, research suggests expressivity consists of several dimensions such as positive expressiveness, negative expressiveness, and the degree to which one's internal experiences are intense and therefore difficult to suppress outwardly (Gross & John, 1998; Trierweiler, Eid, & Lischetzke, 2002).

This multidimensionality implies that there is not a one-to-one correspondence between leader expressivity and leader effectiveness. Instead, different facets of such expressivity may be

more or less relevant and beneficial for different categories of behavior or perhaps even for different manifestations of the same category. As an illustration, consider the dimension of positive expressivity. Leaders who tend to be more expressive in their positivity are seen as charismatic and likable (Friedman et al., 1988; Holladay & Coombs, 1994; Riggio et al., 2003) and also as motivating and effective (Groves, 2006; Riggio, et al., 2003). Consistent with these findings, such expressivity likely has a positive influence on categories such as crafting emotional displays to influence Soldier behavior and providing positive uplifts. However, behaving in an outwardly sanguine or cheerful manner may be harmful for other behavioral categories such as providing support or communicating adverse news, especially to the degree that such behavior suggests callousness or a lack of understanding (Davis, 1983; Egan, 2002).

Further complicating matters is the recognition that a given sets of behaviors may require different forms of expressivity depending on other moderating factors. As described above, positive leader displays are not always appropriate; certain instances, such as those in which the leader is disciplining a Soldier, may require either negative expressions or the lack of any intense expression (Keltner & Haidt, 1999). Furthermore, the significant motivational effects that result from this expressivity can backfire when such displays coincide with inappropriate or unethical information (Holladay & Coombs, 1994). Consistent with the notion of the "dark side of charismatic behavior" (Conger, 1990), an Army leader's emotional expressiveness can lead to negative instead of beneficial outcomes when the leader proffers incorrect or unscrupulous information. In sum, while emotional intensity is a strong determinant of several of these behavioral categories, the relationships are not straightforward and may depend on other KSAOs and on various situational factors.

Moderators of the Effects of KSAOs and of EM Behaviors

The previous sections presented research to justify the linkages in the leader emotion management model. In addition to these factors which may impact the leader's effectiveness of emotion management behaviors, both situational and personal factors will likely influence the strength of the relationships between leader behaviors and outcomes. These factors represent the focus of the next section of this report.

Situational Strength/Autonomy

Army leader's personal characteristics will influence their emotion management behavior in some types of situations more than in others. In particular, such characteristics should have a greater influence in "weak" situations – those where there are no firm norms or guidelines about how to behave (Barrick & Mount 1993; Mischel, 1968). For instance, if a deployed Soldier complains to the leader about being "homesick," the leader could respond in various ways, such as providing compassion versus telling the Soldier to "toughen up." In this case, the leader has discretion in the behaviors used to address the Soldier's emotions (or not). Thus, those behaviors, and their execution, partially should be a function of the leader's relevant knowledge, skills, ability, and other characteristics. One can compare this scenario with a stronger situation, such as when a Soldier is upset after losing a Comrade in battle. Although there still would be variability among leaders' in their reactions and behaviors, there are stronger norms about appropriate, or at

least inappropriate behavior, here, thereby limiting the range of responses. In this case, leader emotion management should not be as strongly tied to individual leader's relevant KSAOs.

Leader Workload

Workload, the third situational factor that influences the EM relationships, impacts the amount of resources a leader has to allocate towards generating EM behavior. The human cognitive capacity is finite, which makes multi-tasking difficult if not impossible. The higher the work load, the more resources the leader must allocate to the task in order to be effective. The allocation, however, comes as the cost of having limited resources left to engage in other behaviors such as managing the Soldiers' emotions. Leaders must prioritize their resources in order to accomplish essential objectives (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989); however, the prioritization of tasks may not be left to the Army but to supervisors and/or environmental factors. In these scenarios, the potential influence of emotion-relevant KSAOs is overwhelmed by the demands of the situation. In other words, leaders proficient in EM performance tend to engage in EM only when more bottom-line activities can wait.

It is worth mentioning, however, that one of the benefits of effective long-term EM is that it decreases the need for EM in any given instance. This is because long-term EM results in norms, culture, and trust levels that are partially self-sustaining (Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989). The benefit is that Soldiers are better equipped to manage their own emotions when their leader dealing with a high workload has fewer resources available to provide EM. We describe this idea in more detail in a later section.

Leader/Soldier Exchanges

Exchanges between the leader and Soldiers serve to establish relationships a leader will utilize when exerting influence behaviors including EM. The exchanges are not limited to traditional face-to-face interactions but also include exchange through electronic media (e.g., e-mail) and other Soldiers (e.g., a Soldier hears about the exchange between a fellow Soldier and their leader). The relationship is a function of both the number and quality of exchanges. Through exchanges, the leader is able to more readily exert influence over the Soldiers' emotions and thereby increase the overall effectiveness of performance behaviors. Simultaneously, this process strengthens the relationship between the leader and Soldiers, which should enable the leader to be more effective at executing influence behaviors. However, if contact is not possible or if opportunities for contact are not taken, then the leader cannot execute effective EM behaviors. If EM processes cannot be executed, then leader attributes cannot influence them.

Self Emotion Management

In order to be effective at managing the emotions of Soldiers, leaders must be able to exercise the same management within themselves (Beal et al., 2005). Research on authentic leadership suggests that behaviors that are inconsistent with previous behaviors or with previously stated values are often seen as disingenuous (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Within the Army, leaders who try to manage Soldiers' emotions but cannot manage their own emotions may be viewed as unskilled or in an unfavorable light. Inconsistent behaviors can, as a result, have the

opposite of the effect intended, even if executed by a leader who is otherwise skilled in other areas (e.g., munitions).

In addition to increasing the effectiveness of influence behaviors, self EM provides a model for Soldiers to follow. The Army Leadership FM 6-22 states influence is more than giving orders; "personal examples" are as important as words (U.S. Department of the Army, 2006, p. 1-2). Soldiers can learn normative behavior by observing the behavior of leaders (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003). For example, a leader who reacts to unexpected obstacles with frustration and negative affect will likely find that Soldiers react in a similar way. These reactions will likely mimic the leader's emotional displays even if the leader tries to manage different emotional reactions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Taken together, self EM provides leaders with authenticity to increase effective of EM behaviors and a model for Soldiers to emulate.

Status Differential

The difference in status between leader and subordinate is also likely to influence EM relationships. Status differential, which reflects the difference in authority (i.e., legitimate power) and rank, may impact leader attribute- EM relationships. Specifically, the degree of influence will increase as the differential between the leader and Soldiers increase. Adding to this effect is the likely decrease in personal exchanges with Soldiers as the leader's rank (i.e., status differential) progresses upwards. As a result, high contact only exists when status differential is low. In situations of low status differential, the leader's EM behaviors will likely be more effective due to established relationships.

Subordinate Attitudes Toward EM

Soldiers' attitudes towards their leader's use of EM will influence the effectiveness of these behaviors. Soldiers with negative attitudes about EM, in particular to their leaders exercising these behaviors, may reject or resent the leader's attempts or view the behaviors as manipulative. Furthermore, the Soldier will not self-develop his/her EM skills. As a result, a given set of leader skills may result in effective EM for one Soldier (i.e., one with positive attitudes toward EM) and ineffective EM for another. Likewise, a given set of EM behaviors may result in positive outcomes for one Soldier and negative outcomes for another.

Emotional Malleability

The final target attribute that moderates EM relationships is emotional malleability. Just as leaders vary in the degree to which they can manage their own emotions, so do Soldiers vary in the degree to which their emotions can be managed either on their own or by others. Emotions are driven, in part, by stable individual characteristics (Watson, 2000). Thus, although a highly disagreeable person is capable of exhibiting positive affect on occasion, that person's standing on the stable trait Agreeableness, in this case low, prevents him or her from doing so regularly. Likewise, a Soldier low in emotional stability may be able to "put on a brave face" from time to time, but also requires a leader to exert additional EM behaviors in order to do so on a consistent basis.

The Impact of EM on Army Operations

In this report, we have attempted to integrate and extend various literatures from both the psychological and management realms into a comprehensive model of leader EM relevant for today's Army. The benefits of improving the Army leader's EM ability go beyond immediate outcomes generated by Soldiers; the benefits manifest in long term outcomes including Soldiers self development as they continue their Army career and one day take command. In addition, benefits are not isolated to local relationships (e.g., leader/Soldier), but can be seen in platoons, companies, and larger. The resulting illustrates the benefits to the Army.

Emotion management, or lack thereof, involves dynamic relationships and has both short and long term consequences. Specifically, both the proximal outcomes and the ultimate outcomes of EM influence subsequent iterations of causal linkages in the model. These longer-term outcomes, and their resultant moderating effects, occur at three separate levels of analysis.

First, at the individual level, Soldiers experience greater confidence, well-being, emotion management skills, and the like, over time, as a function of their leaders' emotion management performance. These leader behaviors such as *Using Emotional Displays to Influence Behavior* bring a Soldier to the correct mental state required for maximum performance and achieving desired outcomes. Owing to these positive outcomes, Soldiers will have less need for the leader's subsequent EM, as they will have developed their own resources to manage resultant emotions. As a consequence of this, the linkages between leader KSAOs and leader EM and between EM and Soldiers outcomes will be weakened due to the Soldier's increased proficiency to self engage EM behaviors.

Second, leader emotion management has long term consequences at the dyadic or relationship level by impacting the relationship between a leader and his or her Soldier. As the leader provides effective EM over time, Soldiers gain an increasing sense of respect, trust, and confidence in the leader. Although the Soldiers may have less need to approach the leader for reactive EM, the EM experiences they do have should be especially impactful. That is, the leader's ability to exert influence should increase over time as the leader and Soldier develop greater trust, rapport, and the like. Thus, the two sets of linkages will be strengthened by these effects.

Finally, EM has long-term implications at the unit level. Through their cumulative EM displays, leaders can create a culture that is, to some degree, self-sustaining. Consider, for example, the proximal outcome of Culture of Mutual Support Provision within the Unit. Leader attributes influence EM behavioral categories such as *Providing Frequent Emotional Uplifts* which in turn promote the culture of mutual support. Quid pro quo relationships are replaced by communal relationships in which participants feel responsible for helping each other and cooperating, further increasing assistance and cooperation (Clark & Mills, 1979). Shared values promote confidence as group members are assured of the intentions and objectives of others, rendering them more likely to invest in promoting the organization and performing well (Dasgupta, 1988). Of course, this culture is likely to deteriorate in the absence of effective

leadership, but once the culture is in place, the decreased need for EM loosens the linkages involving it.

In sum, these longer-term outcomes have dynamic effects on the two main sets of relationships in the model, with the nature of those effects differing across levels of analysis. Taken as a whole, across the three levels, these effects should result in leaders providing less frequent, but more impactful and effective emotion management over time.

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Appendix A: Leader EM Processes and Behaviors

Leader EM Processes	Sample Behaviors	Sample Antecedents	Sample Outcomes
1. Interacting and communicating in an interpersonally tactful manner	-Leader uses respectful and socially appropriate language -Leader uses culturally tactful language -Leader refrains from engaging in harassing, belittling, or abusive behavior -Leader refrains from unnecessarily yelling at Soldiers	-Self-insight -Knowledge of emotion evoking events -Emotion recognition -Perspective-taking -Communication skill -Self-monitoring -Empathy -Agreeableness -Compassion	-Reduced strain and burnout -Increased employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment -Fewer Counter-productive Work Behaviors (CWBs) -Satisfaction with leader -Rapport, Leader Member Exchange (LMX) -Receptiveness to feedback

Leader EM Processes	Sample Behaviors	Sample Antecedents	Sample Outcomes
2. Demonstrating consideration and support for Soldiers	-Leader demonstrates affection and affirmation -Leader provides guidance or advice -Leader provides Soldiers with instrumental support (e.g., time off) -Leader refrains from offering support when it is unwanted	-Self-insight -Knowledge of emotions and their consequences -Knowledge of emotion evoking events -Knowledge of the importance of emotions and emotion -Knowledge of organizational norms regarding emotional displays -Emotion recognition -Perspective-taking -Behavioral flexibility -Emotion support skill -Communication skill -Neuroticism/NA/BIS -Empathy	-Culture of mutual support -Trust in leader -Satisfaction with leader -Willingness to approach leader -Rapport with leader, LMX -Reduced burnout and strain -Task motivation and improved job performance

Leader EM Processes	Sample Behaviors	Sample Antecedents	Sample Outcomes
3. Using emotional displays to influence Soldiers' behavior	-Leader enacts appropriate negative displays in response to Soldier inappropriate behavior -Leader displays enthusiasm and vigor to foster task motivation -Leader Demonstrates the importance of a seemingly mundane event by expressing intense emotion -Leader Dampens the importance of a seemingly significant event by not expressing emotion	-Self-insight -Knowledge of emotions and their consequences -Knowledge of the importance of emotions and EM -Knowledge of organizational norms regarding emotional displays -Perspective-taking -Behavioral flexibility -Presentation skill -Self-monitoring -Extroversion/PA/BAS -Charisma -Emotional expressivity	-Strong norms/rules for emotional displays -Satisfaction with leader -Task motivation and improved job performance -Positive affective tone -Shared mental models -Group cohesiveness

Leader EM Processes	Sample Behaviors	Sample Antecedents	Sample Outcomes
4. Structuring work tasks with consideration for Soldiers' emotions	-Leader assigns and structures tasks that workers find challenging and that draw upon and afford enhancement of Soldiers' skills -Leader assigns and structures tasks that provide a sense of accomplishment -Leader avoids assigning tasks that are monotonous or time-pressured	-Knowledge of emotions and their consequences -Knowledge of emotion evoking events -Knowledge of the importance of emotions and EM -Knowledge of organizational norms regarding emotional displays -Emotion support skill	-Satisfaction with leader -Task motivation and improved job performance -Increased Soldier job satisfaction and organizational commitment -Reduced turnover, greater retention -Reduced burnout and strain

Leader EM Processes	Sample Behaviors	Sample Antecedents	Sample Outcomes
5. Providing frequent emotional "uplifts"	-Leader uses humor -Leader regularly provides praise and recognition -Leader uses varied uplifts to avoid Soldiers' emotional habituation to them -Leader creates a pleasant physical environment	-Knowledge of emotions and their consequences -Knowledge of the importance of emotions and EM -Emotion recognition -Presentation skill -Extroversion/PA/BAS -Charisma -Emotional expressivity	-Positive affective climate -Satisfaction with leader -Rapport with leader/LMX -Group cohesion -Increased OCBs -Increased employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment -Reduced turnover, greater retention

Leader EM Processes	Sample Behaviors	Sample Antecedents	Sample Outcomes
6. Behaving in a fair and ethical manner	-Leader make equitable allocation decisions -Leader makes decisions that are consistent, free from bias, and participatory -Leader "goes to bat for Soldiers" with upper management -Leader "walks the talk" and refrains from hypocritical behavior	-Self-insight -Perspective-taking -Conscientiousness	-Trust in leader -Satisfaction with leader -Willingness to approach leader -Rapport with leader, LMX -Increased Soldier job satisfaction and organizational commitment -Reduced turnover, greater retention -Fewer CWBs

Leader EM Processes	Sample Behaviors	Sample Antecedents	Sample Outcomes
7. Managing interactions and relationships among coworkers	-Leader staffs workgroups with regard to likely affective outcomes -Leader tries to ensure that well-liked group members remain in the group -Leader effectively manages group conflict -Leader identifies ostracized members and attempts to re-incorporate them into the group	-Knowledge of emotion evoking events -Knowledge of the importance of emotions and EM -Emotion recognition -Perspective-taking -Empathy -Agreeableness	-Culture of mutual support provision within the unit -Group cohesiveness -Positive affective tone -Increased OCBs -Increased Soldier job satisfaction and organizational commitment -Reduced turnover, greater retention

Leader EM Processes	Sample Behaviors	Sample Antecedents	Sample Outcomes
8. Maintaining open and frequent communication	-Leader provides forthcoming and frequent information about organizational changes -Leader provides clear task instructions -Leader provides frequent task feedback	-Knowledge of emotion evoking events -Knowledge of the importance of emotions and EM -Communication skill -Extroversion/PA/BAS -Conscientiousness -Empathy	-Trust in leader -Satisfaction with leader -Rapport with leader, LMX -Reduced burnout and strain -Receptiveness to feedback -Task motivation and improved job performance